

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

## A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

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### Educational News and Editorial Comment

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#### WHAT IS BEST FOR SEVENTEEN-YEAR-OLDS?

MANY statements have appeared in recent months regarding the proposals of a number of institutions of higher learning for the admission to Freshman standing of selected high-school students who have not completed the full prescribed course of study for graduation from high school. These proposals, although not receiving the endorsement of secondary-school leaders generally, have not been openly opposed. It was, however, apparent from the first that many principals of secondary schools viewed the acceleration plans announced by the higher institutions with some misgivings. Some principals privately expressed the view that the plans of certain institutions bore the characteristics of emergency measures designed to recoup losses in enrolment rather than of programs developed in the interests of the high-school students. That most par-

ents and students viewed the college plans in much the same light is indicated by the fact that very limited numbers of high-school Seniors of the types specified in the college announcements sought admission to the accelerated college programs.

The enactment of the amendment to the Selective Training and Service Act lowering the draft age to eighteen tended to revive the issue of what is best for the seventeen-year-olds, most of whom face the prospect of having their education interrupted by the call to service either before graduation from high school or before admission to college. Realizing the seriousness of the impending interruption of the education of the high-school students in the seventeen-year age group, especially boys, the Educational Policies Commission on November 22, 1942, released the following resolution, which was designed to clarify the situation for the thousands of young men

and women in this age group. Special attention should be paid to the italicized words.

We urge that, during the war emergency, *selected* students who have achieved Senior standing in high school and who will, in the judgment of high-school and college authorities, *profit* from a year's college education before they reach selective service age, be admitted to college and, at the end of the successful completion of their Freshman year, be granted a diploma of graduation by the high school and full credit for a year's work towards the fulfilment of the requirements for the Bachelor's degree or as preparation for advanced professional education.

Following the announcement of this resolution and the immediate discussion which it received in the public press, many institutions of higher learning, without taking time to discuss the question with high-school leaders, at once broadcast their intentions to accept as Freshmen high-school boys who had completed the Junior year with good records. The frequency of misinterpretation of the resolution by the press and the "electric" response of the colleges apparently alarmed the Educational Policies Commission, for very shortly some of the members rushed into print with statements apparently designed to anticipate impending criticism from high-school administrators, who had not had the opportunity to discuss the resolution prior to its adoption.

Dean J. B. Edmonson, a member of the Policies Commission, in a statement published in *School and Society* on December 26, 1942, elaborated on the views stated by various members of the Commission when the resolu-

tion was under discussion, summarized the arguments for and against the proposal embodied in the resolution, and pleaded for the general discussion of the issue by college and high-school authorities and parents of the high-school youth concerned. Clearly, Dean Edmonson's chief concern, and that of the Commission for which he was apparently speaking, is the fear that selfish interests on the part of both college and secondary-school leaders may obscure the real and only issue in the resolution, namely, the welfare of the seventeen-year-old boys and girls.

The following questions, designed to clarify the critical issues arising from the resolution, are proposed by Dean Edmonson for consideration before definite policies are adopted by colleges or high schools.

1. What are the strongest arguments for the proposal? Against the proposal?
2. Under what conditions would you advise a seventeen-year-old boy of college caliber who had attained Senior standing to enter a college where he could secure a year of work before entering the armed forces?
3. Have colleges in your state modified their programs so as to provide for the needs of Freshmen planning to enter the armed forces?
4. What changes, if any, in the instruction in the upper grades of the high school would be most helpful to boys preparing for the armed forces?
5. In terms of the best interests of seventeen-year-old boys, what modifications, if any, would you make in the proposals set forth in the resolution of the Commission?
6. What do you anticipate would be the reaction of parents to the adoption of plans for college admissions such as the resolution implies?

In the January 9, 1943, number of *School and Society*, a radio address by John K. Norton, another member of the Educational Policies Commission, is published. Although Professor Norton's statement disposes of the subterfuge that is likely to be resorted to by both college and high-school administrators who view the issue selfishly instead of altruistically, it nevertheless shows that, in his mind, the college rather than the high school can best serve the interests of the seventeen-year-old high-school Senior who is qualified to carry college work and those of the nation which is expected to utilize his services when he reaches the age of eighteen. The concluding paragraph of Professor Norton's address is quoted.

The proposal to permit selected, qualified, high-school Seniors to go to good colleges for the year preceding military induction is basically sound. In essence it merely proposes that youths who are ready for college, should go to college, even though this may require breaking the lock step, the graduation rituals, the college-entrance examinations, and other formalities which too often prevent selected youth of unusual ability from doing what is best both for themselves and for their country.

The anticipated critical reaction to the proposal of the Educational Policies Commission came very quickly from the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, a department of the National Education Association, in the form of the following resolution.

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals recommends that all stu-

dents in the high school, or secondary school, not immediately subject to the provisions of the Selective Service Act, remain in the high school and complete, if possible, the full wartime program of studies offered by the high school and thereby qualify for graduation from the high school. It believes that the many wartime curriculum offerings of the high school provide for youth not yet eighteen years of age the best preparation and training for future services in the armed forces and for the production of essential wartime materials and foods.

In support of this resolution, as opposed to the resolution of the Educational Policies Commission, Paul E. Elicker, executive secretary of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, queries:

What special one-year wartime program do colleges have to offer seventeen-year-old boys and girls as pre-induction training for the armed forces and for war production in place of the Senior year in the high school, and should the colleges or secondary schools determine what constitutes qualification for graduation from the high school?

The Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals asserts that it made a careful study of, and gave deliberate consideration to, all the proposals thus far announced by colleges and by organizations and commissions representing higher institutions of learning, before the conclusion embodied in the resolution was reached. It maintains, in contrasting the preparation offered by high schools with that offered by colleges for the participation of students in war services, that extensive curriculum additions and changes are continually being made in the high

schools in many learning areas. Examples of these additions and changes are the introduction of pre-flight aviation, the revision of mathematics and science courses to meet war needs, the development of physical-fitness programs for all students, and the provision of courses, particularly for girls, pertaining to war production and home industries. The wartime program in the high schools offers its maximally effective training period in the last, or Senior, year of the high school. The Executive Committee further states:

The high schools have, for many years, received appeals from the colleges that students from these schools be better and more thoroughly prepared and that they be retained in the secondary school until they are more mature and able to carry on the work of the first year of the college. Such a program and policy for admission to college was perforce accepted as a preparatory program for students who planned to enter college. This same school—the high school—has difficulty in understanding and accepting a new college-announced program that is in opposition to the established and prevailing admission program of the higher institutions of learning.

The following are examples of the comments of principals of large high schools on the issue presented in the resolution of the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and that of the Educational Policies Commission.

Are we not really faced with making a decision as to whether we shall do what is best for the high-school pupil or to try to save the college? No one really contends we can do both at this time.—HUGH H.

STEWART, *Principal*, A. B. Davis High School, Mount Vernon, New York.

As opposed to the training the boy can get as a high-school Senior in technical courses and in such other basic courses as physics, fourth-year mathematics, chemistry, physical training, and aeronautics, will the college offer him pre-induction work better or in advance of this? If it so desired, could it do so without the student first having had the basic training represented in these courses?—FRANCIS L. BACON, *Superintendent*, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois.

Certainly students would profit by remaining in high schools which have personnel and guidance programs designed to serve them. The benefits of such programs, based upon adequate accumulative records and personal contact with advisers over the full high-school experience, are bound to be more satisfactory than spending this last year in a new institution. In these critical times, virtually all boys will profit from continued life in their homes. The stability of character to be gained from the additional year at home and in a school ready to serve them according to their aptitudes and needs would certainly be better for these boys than being thrown into a new environment, however good, for a brief time.—GALEN JONES, *Principal*, East Orange High School, East Orange, New Jersey.

Secondary-school teachers and principals have been drawn closer and closer to the upperclass students and their parents in an advisory capacity since Pearl Harbor—so many and so vital seem to be the guidance decisions that need to be made. In thinking through the matter of advanced training and the possibilities of it in wartime, it will be quite natural for teachers and parents to doubt the advisability of rushing a youngster away from home before he has time to receive the good that the Senior year of high school has to offer him.—HAROLD SPEARS, *Principal*,

Highland Park High School, Highland Park, Illinois.

In contrast with the views of these high-school leaders are the opinions of two members of the Educational Policies Commission, President Edmund E. Day, of Cornell University, and George F. Zook, president of the American Council on Education, which were quoted in the February issue of the *School Review*.

A middle-of-the-road position was presented in the March number of the *School Review* in a quotation from the "Statement of Policy" issued by the Executive Committee of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, recommending that state committees of the association representing the high schools cooperate closely with member-institutions of higher learning and that they work out procedures in harmony with the best interests of the students. If leaders in both high schools and colleges accept the sound advice of this committee, there is little doubt that the differences can be resolved and the welfare of the student safeguarded.

Granted that both the Educational Policies Commission and the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals are primarily concerned about the best interests of the student, is it not possible that both organizations are overestimating the importance of their advice? The American parent and his seventeen-year-old son or daughter are fairly capable of making their own decisions. They know the difference

between the opportunities of a good high school and a poor college, or vice versa, and they are very likely to make their decision in favor of the institution which offers the better program.

Let us hope that, if any competition develops between the colleges and the secondary schools for the type of student whose case has become an issue, it will be restricted to the privilege of offering unique educational services. If the resolutions under consideration direct attention of all parties concerned to the importance of making the pre-induction year of selected seventeen-year-olds one of superior preparation, wherever it is attempted, the controversy will have accomplished a worth-while service.

#### THE REACTION OF ONE COLLEGE TO THE SPEED-UP PLAN

ONLY high-school graduates will continue to be admitted to Columbia College of Columbia University, despite the trend among some colleges toward admitting students who have not completed all their secondary-school preparation, Dean Herbert E. Hawkes has announced, according to an item appearing in the *New York Sun*:

"If colleges admit boys who have not finished their high-school studies, the Freshman year will tend to be reduced to a 'prep' school level, and the competency of the entire new student group will be affected," Dean Hawkes warned.

"This projected wartime plan, if carried out to any extent, will also have a harmful

effect on secondary schools, because it would entail the removal of the more intelligent students, who are the key men of their classes, leaving the 'skimmed milk' of the student body. This would result in a serious lowering of scholastic standards all around."

### WORK-STUDY DEVELOPMENT IN PROSPECT

**T**wo million high-school boys and girls will have to go to work on part-time, after-school, and vacation jobs this year—and every year as long as the war lasts—to help solve the nation's manpower problem." The *New York Sun* reports this as the estimate of Lyle Spencer, director of Science Research Associates, after more than a year's survey of the country's employment situation. The survey was supplemented by a study of what high schools can teach to help prepare students directly for war jobs, which is reported as follows:

Twenty high-school subjects in which trained young people are needed most for the nation's war machine were listed by Dr. Spencer: agriculture, auto repair, blueprint reading, bookkeeping, cooking, foundry, the International Morse Code, machine shop, mechanical drawing, model plane building, nursing, nutrition, office-machine operation, personal hygiene, photography, plane repair, pre-flight aeronautics, radio and telephone repair, shorthand and typewriting, and woodworking.

Of these, Dr. Spencer added, agriculture, auto repair, bookkeeping, cooking, model plane building, nursing, office-machine management, nutrition, and radio and telephone repair work should provide plenty of job opportunities in the post-war world.

The report said that since passage of the teen-age draft bill, no boy can plan to do

more than complete his current semester of work after he reaches eighteen "unless he is training directly for one of the highly technical war occupations."

The work-study plan provided for the high-school students of Oakland, California, which is reported by George C. Bliss, director of occupational adjustment in the Oakland public schools, presents an excellent example of the problem described by Spencer.

In anticipation of a heavy demand on the youth of Oakland to help relieve the labor shortage in war industries and other types of business and industry, a plan of combined study and work was conceived as early as March, 1942. Careful thought was given to the organization of the program, and plans were made to put the program into effect with the beginning of the autumn semester of 1942. Since the program is new, no definite conclusions can be drawn at this time, but everything points to the successful operation of the plan.

Students who wish to work part time while still in school are permitted to attend high school four hours daily and work four hours daily. This meets the state labor-law requirements, which restrict minors to an eight-hour day for school and work, and gives employers an opportunity to hire youth without asking them to sacrifice or to postpone their high-school graduation. All jobs must meet the requirements of the state and federal child-labor laws.

The part-time work program is purely voluntary on the part of the students and must also have parental and high-school approval before the student may make arrangements to enrol for four-hour daily employment. Participation is thus far limited to students between the ages of sixteen and eighteen years, and after five weeks of this semester the number enrolling for the work-

study program had reached 2,136 out of approximately 6,500 students between the ages of sixteen and eighteen years enrolled in Oakland's eight high schools.

These students are employed in a vast variety of jobs. In some cases two students are filling one eight-hour job on a purely two-for-one basis; that is, two students fill one full-time job, one working in the morning and the other in the afternoon on the same job. However, owing to the demands from the many industries in this area, thus far most of the jobs are on a strictly part-time basis, most of the students going to school in the morning and working in the afternoon. We are having far more requests for workers than we have students who are desirous of entering, or are eligible to enter, the program. In fact, it is interesting to note that jobs paying as much as one dollar an hour are not being filled in some cases.

In order to set up the plan, it was necessary to appoint in each high school a teacher who would supervise the program and act as a co-ordinator of work experience for the high school. The title of this person is now "co-ordinator of work experience." If a student wishes to enter the program, he first consults his counselor regarding the advisability of taking work experience as a part of his high-school training. Right at this point many students find that their course, because of college prerequisites, etc., will not allow them to work and still carry the course they are following. These students are counseled to forgo the benefits of the work-study program and proceed with their school plans on a full-time basis. Other students, because of health defects or physical or emotional immaturity, may be counseled to remain in school on a full-time basis.

If the counselor feels that the student will benefit from such a program, he proceeds as follows: If the young person already has a job in mind and knows the hours in which he will work, the school program is arranged on a four-hours-a-day basis and the student is sent to the co-ordinator of work experience,

who arranges for his work permit and signs him up as a member of his work-experience group. The co-ordinator will then supervise the student on the job, and, if the student's work is satisfactory to the employer, he will receive a maximum credit of one unit per semester toward graduation.

No definite policy has been set up regarding the subjects that the student will drop from his regular school program in order to enrol in the school work program. The student and the counselor together decide on the courses that the student can best afford to eliminate. Schooling must come first. For example, a boy wishing to work in the morning and go to school in the afternoon may find that trigonometry, given only once in the school day, is given in the morning when he is supposed to work. The boy has three choices: he changes his work shift; he gets another job; or he stays in school on a full-time basis.

If the student does not have a job, the counselor sends him to the co-ordinator of work experience, who arranges for the youth to go to the United States Employment Service, Junior Division, a department that has given the schools splendid co-operation in the placement of young people. Here the applicant finds a job suited to his abilities and aptitudes. He then obtains a work permit and returns to school to be signed in the work-experience group. Finally, he returns to the counselor to have his school course arranged.

Since jobs are plentiful, students are expected to find employment within a few days after they indicate their desire to join the work-experience group. However, if they find an opportunity to better themselves, they may change jobs up to the end of the first five weeks of the semester. After that, they are asked to remain on their jobs for a full semester if they wish to earn school credit, just as they remain in any class in school for the entire semester. This has a tendency to stabilize the entire program, both for the school and for business and industry.

It should be stated here that the success of this program depends largely upon the co-operation which the schools are able to obtain from employers who accept these students either on a two-for-one basis or a part-time shift of four hours. I should like to mention right here that the employers in the East Bay area have been very co-operative, and to them we owe a great deal of the success of our program thus far. Early in the spring and during the summer, many employers in large firms were consulted regarding the advisability of instigating such a program. All were enthusiastic about the proposed arrangements, and since the beginning of the fall semester many letters have arrived commending our superintendent of schools, William F. Ewing, and the Oakland public schools for their foresightedness in conceiving a means of relieving the labor shortage and, at the same time, maintaining educational standards.

The supervision of students on the job has been organized by districts throughout the East Bay area. Each high-school co-ordinator of work experience is responsible for the supervision of all students employed in his district whether they are from his high school or from any one or all of the seven other high schools in Oakland. In this way no large factory or business concern employing students from more than one high school will have more than one person calling for the purpose of supervision. Co-ordinators meet frequently to exchange information gathered on their visits. Appropriate forms have been set up to carry on this supervision.

Although, as previously stated, we have tried to alleviate some of the labor shortage, we also feel very definitely that in the work-experience program there is real educational value. Before our work-experience plan was inaugurated, young people did not generally have the opportunity to get real work experience under proper safeguards and supervision. We feel that our plan does not need the justification of the war emergency, that

it would be just as valuable during peacetime as during wartime.

#### WHAT PUPILS THINK ABOUT THE ISSUES OF WAR AND PEACE

THE high schools of Cincinnati have recently repeated the poll conducted by *Fortune Magazine* to ascertain what the pupils think about some of the issues of war and peace. The poll was given in part to a sampling of Cincinnati pupils by the Bureau of Appraisal Service. A description of the project is given in *Better Teaching*, the bulletin of the Cincinnati schools, from which the following quotations are taken.

The findings for Cincinnati show that many pupils consider a thorough revision of the government, including provision for an advanced form of social security, coupled with some form of universal military service, necessary. They hold moderate views in regard to labor unions, with a majority having a generally favorable opinion. They are relatively free from racial and religious prejudice. Idealism and optimism are predominant. The majority are emphatic in rejecting isolation and overwhelmingly favor the idea of the United States assuming a positive role in organizing the world for peace. In comparison with the replies of pupils all over the country, Cincinnati pupils are somewhat more certain that after the war the government should provide employment security for everyone and should require military service from all; they are more tolerant of minority groups, including Negroes, Jews, and Chinese; and they are slightly more conservative in their attitudes toward unions. It is significant that whereas 58 per cent of pupils over the country are satisfied with the understanding of present happenings they are getting at school, only 26 per cent of the pupils of Cincinnati high schools are satis-

fied. Seventy-three per cent of local pupils think the schools could do better in this respect, as contrasted with only 39 per cent on a nation-wide basis.

This finding may mean that the Cincinnati pupils are more eager for information, but it may also indicate that an unsatisfactory treatment of current affairs is provided in their high-school classes.

The following section of the poll shows how the high-school pupils in Cincinnati and the group sampled from the nation by *Fortune* compare in their views as to which of six policies they would like to see America adopt when the war is over.

|   | Percent-<br>age in<br>Cincinnati | Percent-<br>age in<br>Nation |
|---|----------------------------------|------------------------------|
| a) Stay at home and have just as little as possible to do with any other country  | 0.6                              | 4.2                          |
| b) Have as little as possible to do with any countries in Europe or Asia, but form a new United States to include in one government all North and South American countries..... | 3.2                              | 3.9                          |
| c) Use our influence to try to organize the world for peace, but form no actual ties with any other countries.....  | 35.0                             | 31.2                         |
| d) Form a new league or association with all the different nations of the world and take an active part in making it work.....  | 52.9                             | 50.9                         |
| e) Try to form some close connection with the British Empire.....   | 1.6                              | 1.1                          |
| f) Form a new United States to include in one government all democracies everywhere in the world..  | 4.4                              | 6.4                          |
| g) Don't know.....  | 2.9                              | 2.3                          |

### WARTIME POLICY FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

**I**N A recent bulletin entitled *The Social Studies Mobilize for Victory*, the Commission on Wartime Policy of the National Council for the Social Studies has issued a statement of policy with respect to the place of education for citizenship in the war program. In the Foreword, Roy A. Price, president of the National Council, writes that the bulletin, which is addressed to all who are concerned with education in citizenship for today's crisis and tomorrow's victory, suggests new emphases, readjustments, and accelerations for social education. Typical of the trenchant analyses of problems involved in the social studies is the following, dealing with the thesis: "The Democratic Way of Life Must Be Understood and Appreciated by All Citizens of a Democracy":

The basic faith and vision of democracy, for which this country has once more gone to war, must be clarified and strengthened in all existing social-studies courses. This means that the historical development, the conflicts, and the trends of American democracy must be taught, and that basic contrasts between democracy and dictatorship must be noted. It means that, by direct instruction and by example in classroom and school relations, the essential dignity and responsibility of the individual must be respected and increased. To achieve these ends, the Commission recommends that:

—in the study of United States history, at every school level, special emphasis should be given to the study of dramatic, key episodes in the development of our democracy, such as: the signing of the Mayflower Compact; the adoption of the Virginia Bill of

Rights; the announcement of the Monroe Doctrine; the Emancipation Proclamation; the adoption of the Open Door policy; the establishment of free public schools; and the passage of the Social Security Act

—at many points in the curriculum, and especially in the intermediate grades, there should be more study of the men and women whose lives have personified and advanced the democratic tradition; the biographies of these persons should be presented against the background of their times

—before graduating from high school every pupil should study a systematic unit of work on "the American tradition" which interprets the nation's history, defines democracy, and presents the struggles involved in developing and safeguarding the democratic way

—in the elementary and secondary schools pupils should study the great documents of our national democratic tradition and present crisis, such as the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, the Gettysburg Address, Wilson's Fourteen Points, the Atlantic Charter, and the Four Freedoms

—in all courses in modern problems or civics there should be a strong unit contrasting democracy and dictatorship

—in all social-studies courses attention should be given to the history and practice of the basic civil liberties

—attention should be given to the development of social and economic as well as of political democracy

—the responsibilities and self-disciplines as well as the privileges of citizenship should be stressed in all courses, and pupils should be given opportunity to exercise them in school and community affairs

—schools and classes should be conducted in such fashion as to emphasize the dignity and worth of every individual in the group, and as to provide continuing experiences with the skills of group co-operation and the disciplines of group democracy

—schools and adult-education agencies should utilize dramatic incidents and impressive ceremonials for the purpose of

building the emotional drives of loyalty to democracy.

#### CLARIFYING THE IDEOLOGICAL FRONT

**I**N THE weekly radio discussion of the University of Chicago Round Table on December 6, 1942, Professor Fred Eastman, of the Chicago Theological Seminary, maintained that there is an ideological front of great importance in the war as well as a military front. Said Professor Eastman:

The newspapers and the radio and the motion pictures have stressed the dramatic events on the military front and given less attention to the basic ideas which are struggling for the possession of men's minds on the ideological front. As a result, the man on the street seems to think that if we can just knock out the military might of Germany and Italy and Japan, the war will be over and that we won't need to worry about the ideological front.

But the matter's not so simple. The fact is that unless we win the struggle on the "idea" front a military victory may be quite useless. On the other hand, victory on the "idea" front will ultimately mean the basis for a just and durable peace that will be the ultimate victory for humanity. Defeat on the "idea" front will ultimately mean a defeat for the freedoms for which we fight, no matter what military victories our armed forces may win.

In response to many requests for a restatement of his remarks in the radio broadcast, Professor Eastman prepared a brief article, which was published in the *Christian Century* of January 6, 1943. In that article he reduced to the simple tabular form shown below the important ideas on which totalitarian and democratic opinion are in irreconcilable disagreement.

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| Concepts Concerning  | Nazi-Fascist Totalitarian Idea | Christian Democratic Idea           |
|----------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Man.....             | Belongs to the state.....      | Belongs to his Creator              |
| Masses.....          | Must follow the leader.....    | Are free men                        |
| Highest value.....   | Power.....                     | Persons                             |
| Supreme loyalty..... | To nation.....                 | To God and humanity                 |
| Religion.....        | National.....                  | Universal                           |
| Government.....      | By compulsion.....             | By consent                          |
| Industry.....        | Absolute state control.....    | Free and competitive enterprise     |
| Education.....       | Indoctrination.....            | Development of individual           |
| Press and radio..... | For government propaganda..... | Free agencies for public discussion |
| Methods.....         | Of fear and hatred.....        | Of faith and good will              |
| Other nations.....   | Conquest.....                  | Mutual aid                          |

About these contrasting opinions, Professor Eastman wrote:

Between these two sets of ideas the peoples of the world must make their choice. To the extent that we of the democracies adopt the fascist ideas and methods, we lose; to the extent that we hold on to our democratic ideas and methods, we win—and humanity wins. This is the real issue now before us.

#### A SECONDARY SCHOOL FOR RELIGIOUS AND SECULAR EDUCATION

THE establishment of the Chicago Jewish Academy in September, 1942, by joint action of the Hebrew Theological College and the Associated Talmud Torahs of Chicago marks a development that will be followed closely by those seeking improved ways to relate religious training to the general education of youth. Combining with high-school instruction the orthodox religious studies of the type pursued in Jewish late-afternoon and evening schools, the new institution aims both to effect an economy of time for its youth and to provide them with secondary education of an especially inspiring and progressive type. The founders' desire to in-

sure elements of sound American education is indicated by their engaging the summer services of a public-school man, Paul R. Pierce, principal of Wells High School, Chicago, Illinois, for consultation with regard to the curriculum and the selection of the original faculty, and by their adopting the policy that the principal be a gentle experienced in school administration.

The program is being developed by gradual stages. Initial enrolment was limited to fifty pupils of Grades VII-IX, future schedules calling for the addition of a grade each semester until a six-year high school is attained. Pupils are selected on the bases of recommendations by teachers of religious schools and selective examinations administered by the academy. Features currently stressed include a core curriculum of religious and secular experiences; co-operative planning by teachers, pupils, and parents; and a wide range of special-interest classes and activities. Teachers of secular and religious areas alike recognize that to discover realistic relationships between religious and lay experiences

and to inspire pupils to realize these for enriched daily living are their most serious challenges. Glenn K. Kelly is the academy's first principal.

#### LOCAL WAR MANPOWER COMMITTEES IN TEXAS

**T**HE Texas Commission on Coordination in Education (University Station, Austin, Texas), in a brochure entitled "Guidance of Youth in Wartime: Program for 1942-43," which was written by Herschel T. Manuel, has proposed that "every high school and college in the state set up a War Manpower Committee unless a sufficient organization for guidance already exists." This bulletin goes on to say:

It would be the duty of this committee to assemble the information needed and to give to individual students the special assistance which the situation requires. The goal is to assist every boy and girl of sixteen years or older, on the assumption that every individual must prepare for a definite part in the armed service or in essential civilian activities.

The advice should be realistic but not shortsighted. Schools and colleges have the heavy responsibility of educating men and women for a war of machines and brains, and for increasing the strength of the democracy for which we are fighting. Our national safety and the future of civilization itself hang upon our ability to keep up and even increase the supply of educated individuals. It is of the utmost importance that we discover, conserve, and develop the abilities of our youth.

Now, as always, the counselor will understand that the fundamental decisions must be made by the youth themselves and their parents, within the framework of the possibilities presented. It is the counselor's busi-

ness to assist them in understanding the situation and their own abilities and interests in relation to it.

A great variety of information will be required. Comparable tests will help immensely if the information they reveal is properly used. It is inconceivable that we should neglect in this time of crisis the information so readily available from this source.

#### COUNTY FORENSIC UNITS IN WISCONSIN

**E**VERY Wisconsin county is expected to be a participant in the "Victory Reporters' Program," organized by the Wisconsin High School Forensic Association, the State Council of Defense, and the Wisconsin Wartime Council on Education to promote the war aims through student forensic activities.

This program provides for services of high-school speakers and of dramatic, music, and other talent in presenting to local groups topics concerning the war effort, using materials furnished by the council of defense.

A large number of schools have enrolled, and in every county the program is being administered by a county forensic chairman working with the county chairman of the speakers' bureau of the council of defense and with speech instructors in the organization of the Victory forensic program in this area.

Plays and radio programs prepared by the Writers' War Board are available to schools. A typical one-act play is "The Boy Who Had No Hero," based on a characterization of George Washington.

### WAR FILMS AVAILABLE TO SCHOOL AND ADULT AUDIENCES

**W**AR films for war use—16mm. sound pictures giving the American people a broader understanding of the war and a clearer recognition of their wartime responsibilities—are now available through the Bureau of Motion Pictures of the Office of War Information.

There were twenty-four O.W.I. films in circulation on January 1, 1943, with approximately four new subjects scheduled for release each month in 1943. There are films showing our armed forces on land, at sea, and in the air: "Ring of Steel," "Men and the Sea," "Winning Your Wings," "Target for Tonight"; and the "song shorts": "Anchors Aweigh" and "The Caissons Go Rolling Along."

There are films picturing war production in factories: "The Arm behind the Army," "Bomber," "Lake Carrier," "Tanks"; and a "song short," "Keep 'em Rolling"; and the equally important war production on farms: "Home on the Range," "Democracy in Action," and "Henry Browne, Farmer."

Civilian activities and responsibilities are outlined in six pictures: "Campus on the March," "Divide and Conquer," "Manpower," "Safeguarding Military Information," "Salvage," and "Out of the Frying Pan into the Firing Line."

There is an official government news review, "U.S. News Review." There are films showing the nature of our enemies: "The Arm behind the

Army" and "Divide and Conquer"; and films portraying our allies: the people of England in "Listen to Britain" and "Target for Tonight," the people of China in "Western Front."

Finally, the issues at stake in this war are pictured in two films: "The Arm behind the Army" and "The Price of Victory."

These motion pictures of the Office of War Information—16mm. sound films—can be obtained from more than 175 established film agencies throughout the country. There is no rental charge for the use of the films, but distributors may make a nominal service charge of fifty cents for the first subject and twenty-five cents for each additional subject in a single shipment.

For complete information concerning O.W.I. films—titles, distributors, and uses—write the Bureau of Motion Pictures, Office of War Information, Washington, D.C.

All teachers today are interested in furthering international understanding and consequently are on the lookout for materials that will give information about other peoples, particularly those of the countries of Asia. The article, "Films for Asiatic Studies in American Education" by William H. Hartley, which appears in later pages of this issue of the *School Review*, contains a list of suitable motion pictures pertaining to the Far East, a description of each film, and the source or sources from which it may be obtained.

WILLIAM C. REAVIS

## WHO'S WHO FOR APRIL

*Authors of news notes and articles* The news notes in this issue have been prepared by WILLIAM C. REAVIS, professor of education at the University of Chicago. RALPH W. TYLER, professor and chairman of the Department of Education and chief examiner of the Board of Examinations at the University of Chicago, discusses recent trends which are indicative of distinct advances in the preparation of teachers. LEO F. SMITH, coordinator of the Study on Cooperative Work Programs at Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute, Rochester, New York, reports the findings of an extensive survey of the methods which junior colleges use to initiate and administer co-operative work programs. WILLIAM H. HARTLEY, instructor in history at State Teachers College, Towson, Maryland, presents a completely annotated list of films meeting accepted standards for classroom use which teachers will find helpful in the study of Asia. JONAH W. D. SKILES, professor of Greek and Latin at Westminster College, Fulton, Missouri, reviews the circumstances under which general language came into be-

ing as a secondary-school course and advocates objectives for its complete redirection. C. A. WEBER, superintendent of the public schools at Galva, Illinois, on the basis of teachers' stated reactions to in-service training in their schools, discusses promising techniques and points out implications of these techniques for effective in-service education. PAUL W. TERRY, professor of psychology at the University of Alabama, and DAN H. COOPER, graduate student in the Department of Education at the University of Chicago, present a list of selected references on various aspects of the extra-curriculum.

*Reviewers of books* ROBERT C. WOELLNER, associate professor of education and executive secretary of the Board of Vocational Guidance and Placement at the University of Chicago. M. O. NATHAN, vocational counselor at South Shore High School, Chicago, Illinois. VIRGINIA SUE READING, student at the University of Chicago. ARTHUR D. PICKETT, instructor in the physical sciences at the University of Chicago.

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## TRENDS IN THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

RALPH W. TYLER

University of Chicago



DURING the past decade there have been some trends in the field of teacher preparation which promise to raise the level of the entire profession. These trends are noticeable in the personnel programs, in the educational programs, and in the organization of the educational programs.

### PERSONNEL PROGRAMS

So far as personnel is concerned, there has been, first, a trend toward better recruitment and selection of persons who are to be trained for the teaching profession. Investigations in the 1930's revealed that the scores on intelligence and achievement tests made by college students going into teaching were, in general, lower than the scores made by students going into other professions.<sup>1</sup> To counteract this condition, an increasing number of teacher-training institutions have set up some plan of selective admission, usually based on the results of intelligence tests and high-school records. Furthermore, a definite plan of re-

cruitment of teachers has been developed in some states, and an organization sponsored by the National Education Association, called the Future Teachers of America, has sought to interest the more promising high-school students in entering teaching as a profession.

Until the beginning of the war the effects of these efforts were marked. In the state of Ohio, where no student who is below the thirtieth percentile on the Ohio State University Psychological Test may be admitted to the program for preparing teachers, the average intellectual and achievement levels of students going into teaching have been raised above those for all other professions except medicine and law. The lessened opportunities in business and in certain of the professions during the depression probably accentuated the effects of programs of selective admission and recruiting, but there can be no doubt that the intellectual level of the teaching profession has been raised somewhat during the past ten years.

The second noticeable trend in personnel programs has been the increased emphasis on the early diagnosis of the student's strengths and weaknesses, coupled with individual planning of the educational program

<sup>1</sup> William S. Learned and Ben D. Wood, *The Student and His Knowledge*. A Report to the Carnegie Foundation on the Results of the High School and College Examinations of 1928, 1930, and 1932. Study of the Relations of Secondary and Higher Education in Pennsylvania. Bulletin No. 29. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1938.

and greater emphasis on the personality of the prospective teacher. The better institutions for the training of teachers have installed fairly comprehensive cumulative-record systems and have developed extensive programs of testing and counseling at entrance. Through these means they are obtaining a broader picture of the prospective teacher's aptitudes and limitations. In addition, the secondary school supplies information which gives a detailed picture of previous academic achievements and of personal and social qualities. The early counseling periods are scheduled for the purpose of obtaining from the student himself further information with regard to his hopes and aspirations as well as his problems and difficulties. The counselor then has a better basis for helping the student plan his educational program, and greater leeway is given for the development of individualized programs.

A very marked trend is the attention given to the personality development of student teachers. It is increasingly recognized that good teaching demands a person who is understanding and has a warm human reaction to children, who avoids coldness, sentimentality, and active antagonism. Although much of the student's personality has developed long before he enters higher education, the college or university has some responsibility for helping to improve the personality and to identify those personal qualities which make some individuals unfit for teaching.

The third trend in personnel programs is the following-up of students after they are graduated from teacher-education institutions. This follow-up takes the form of visits by faculty members from the teacher-training institution to the classrooms of the new teachers; of periodic conferences at the teacher-training institution, to which new teachers may bring problems for discussion and possible assistance; and of the development of an extensive program of in-service education on the part of teacher-training institutions. Since the demand for new teachers steadily diminished from 1920 until the war, it has been increasingly possible for teacher-training institutions to devote a large portion of their energy and facilities to assisting teachers in service to continue their educational development.

One of the noteworthy efforts in providing in-service education of teachers is the development of the summer workshop. The workshop is an arrangement whereby a teacher or a school officer may work intensively on a problem which he brings from his own school and may obtain the assistance of staff members of the teacher-training institution. Typically a summer workshop runs for about six weeks and includes staff members from various fields of study, particularly from the fields of the curriculum, student personnel, evaluation, and administration. Workshop participants interested in similar problems form into small groups, and they also work individually with the guidance of

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various faculty members who can give help on the particular difficulties that they face. The workshop has developed rapidly because it is an effective means of actually influencing the practices in use in the schools.

The follow-up of graduates often includes a periodic work-conference program during the year, as well as the summer workshop. Some institutions have established plans whereby the participants in the workshop are given additional counsel and advice throughout the year as they work in their own school systems.

#### EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

A very noticeable trend in the development of educational programs for the preparation of teachers has been the change in the phases of education considered of special importance in the training of teachers. Five aspects of teacher preparation are now being given special emphasis.

The first of these is the field of child growth or human growth and development. Work in this field is frequently taking the place of the older courses in educational psychology. It is believed that those older courses tended to emphasize abstract principles and, in some cases, to promote a kind of atomistic psychology, whereas teachers must deal with human organisms and should understand the growth and development of the child as a unified organism. Teachers need to learn about the interrelations of the child's physical, mental, emotional, and social growth. Only as they understand the

interrelations of these various phases of growth can they deal effectively with the child as a learner. This emphasis is also found in the education of the high-school or junior-college teacher, who requires a better understanding of adolescent growth and development. During the past few years a number of important studies of adolescent growth and development have been made, such as the University High School Study of Adolescents being carried on at Oakland, California, the Harvard Growth Study, and the studies of the Commission on the Secondary-School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association. These have tended to give a substantial foundation for more detailed attention to the field of child growth and development.

A second major emphasis is being placed on the development of social understanding on the part of teachers. Those in charge of the preparation of teachers are increasingly recognizing that education has a social function, that it is not something which is carried on in isolation from the community but rather that its effectiveness depends on a realistic understanding of society and the school's responsibility to the community. Programs of teacher preparation are now giving attention to the study of the community both as a means of identifying school responsibilities and as a means of locating community resources which may help to make the educational program more effective. There is an increasing recognition that

the education of young people demands the effective co-operation of all the educative agencies in the community, that it is not the sole responsibility of the school. More attention is now being given to providing actual community experience for the prospective teacher rather than concentrating his sole practice on work in a classroom.

A third emphasis is being placed on the inclusion of the arts in the education of teachers. There is a growing recognition that, as the schools have become the institution for the education of all the children of all the people, our previous preoccupation with verbal communication does not properly provide opportunity for all children to express themselves well and that it does not adequately develop persons able to express themselves in a variety of media. It is increasingly believed that teachers should have experience, not only in writing and in speaking, but also in painting, in drawing, in sculpturing, in dancing, and in working in the handcrafts—all of which will give them some feeling for the various ways in which young people may learn to express themselves and some idea of the value of these varied means of expression. It is also maintained that the provision of varied experiences for teachers helps to give them greater freedom and increased outlets for spontaneity and enthusiasm.

A fourth emphasis is being laid on the development of curriculum techniques that can be used by all teachers. It is now recognized that, in a

very real sense, the teacher is a curriculum-maker rather than a mere user of outlines and textbooks. The teacher must make some decisions regarding the relative emphasis to be given to various objectives in his teaching, some decisions regarding the kinds of materials likely to be most effective with his group; he must have some ability to participate in planning and developing effective units. These responsibilities indicate the need for training the teacher in curriculum construction. Emphasis on techniques of curriculum construction is essential to the development in the schools of educational programs which are sufficiently flexible to provide adequately for the education of young people in a changing world.

A fifth emphasis in the preparation of teachers is being placed on methods of evaluating the effectiveness of the educational program. It is increasingly recognized that every teacher must be an evaluator. He cannot wait for an outside appraisal in order to determine the points of strength and weakness in his work and in order to obtain leads concerning the ways of improving the educational program. Furthermore, the evaluation of the curriculum must be made in terms of the purposes or the objectives which the curriculum is expected to serve. Then, too, much of the evidence on which the evaluation is based must be collected by the teacher through the use of tests, examinations, and other measuring devices. Hence recent educational programs for preparing teach-

ers give a great deal of attention to techniques of evaluation.

#### ORGANIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

In addition to the trends in the emphasis given various phases of the educational program, there are also noticeable trends in the organization of educational programs for teachers.

One marked trend in the organization of teacher-preparation programs is the closer relation between education departments and subject-matter departments. At the University of Chicago, for example, the responsibility for the preparation of teachers is now placed on a university-wide Committee on the Preparation of Teachers—a committee made up of representatives from several divisions and departments. This trend is proper recognition of the fact that teachers are not educated by the Department of Education alone or by the subject-matter departments alone. The facilities and resources of many departments are required to provide an adequate education for teachers. The closer relationship of the several departments which is found in many institutions tends to reduce the conflict between subject-matter and professional preparation and to emphasize the ways in which the various departments can co-operatively work to provide superior teachers.

A second change in organization is the provision of larger blocks of instruction. During the latter part of the 1920's it was common for many

teacher-education institutions to provide two- and three-hour courses and for the student to be taking from five to eight courses during each quarter or semester. This division of the week prevented much consecutive thinking; made it more difficult to develop interrelationships among various aspects of the educational program; and rendered it practically impossible to provide for field trips, extended schoolroom observations, and the like. The tendency now is to schedule fewer courses and larger blocks of instruction. In some institutions the teacher-preparation program may require the entire time of the student for certain quarters or semesters. By being able to plan for the entire time of the student over these periods, the institution can better correlate the various phases of his experiences and can arrange for intensive community participation as well as for consecutive periods of schoolroom observation and teaching participation.

A third trend in the organization of the program is the provision for greater integration of theory and actual work with children, even in the early years of the student's college experience. For example, at the University of Syracuse, students preparing to teach have an opportunity in the Sophomore year to participate in the work of various youth agencies, like the Y.M.C.A. and the Boy Scouts, in order to obtain experience in actual work with children, and an effort is made to integrate this experience with the theory being learned in the campus

courses. At Ohio State University the month of September in the student's Sophomore year is devoted to actual work in a school or other community agency away from the campus. Under the leadership of a sociologist, the student has been given some previous preparation for this concentrated experience, and an effort is made, on his return to the campus, to deal in his courses with the kinds of problems that he encountered in the community.

A fourth notable trend in the methods of organizing the educational program for teachers is the increasing responsibility placed on the student for planning and carrying on his own education. One of the weak spots in all educational programs has been the frequent lack of concern of the learner himself and the lack of intelligent planning on his part. There is a tendency in teacher-education institutions to provide considerable flexibility in the curriculum and in the student personnel program, combined with a plan for individual counseling, in order that the student may take an increasing responsibility for planning his own educational program in terms of his purposes and of the demands which society makes upon teachers. Students are participating in college curriculum committees and in college guidance and personnel councils, and greater opportunity is given the individual student to work out an individualized program which he is expected to justify in terms of evidence about himself and his previous preparation. Eventually, it is hoped, this

experience will help these prospective teachers to place greater responsibility upon children and youth in the schools so that they too may take a more active part in pursuing their own education.

These trends in personnel and educational programs are only a few illustrations of many changes that are taking place in the preparation of teachers. Efforts are being made to improve the personnel program through improved methods of recruitment, selection, guidance, and following-up of graduates. The educational program is being improved by placing emphasis on the study of human growth and development, on the acquisition of social understanding on the part of teachers, on the inclusion of arts in the education of teachers, on training teachers in techniques of curriculum construction, and on training teachers in evaluation. Attempts are being made to improve the organization of the program through the co-ordination of subject-matter departments and departments of education, through the provision of larger blocks of instruction, through the integration of theoretical instruction and actual work with children, and through a plan whereby the student is given greater responsibility for his own educational program. All these efforts have tended to improve the quality of the teachers, to develop a distinct morale, and to make teaching much more of a profession than it has been in the past.

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## INITIATING, ADMINISTERING, AND CO-ORDINATING CO-OPERATIVE WORK PROGRAMS IN JUNIOR COLLEGES

LEO F. SMITH

Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute, Rochester, New York



WITHIN the past few years many administrators of junior colleges have become increasingly aware of the desirability of providing students with a type of education more realistic than that formerly offered them. In some cases these thoughts have been translated into action, and a program of co-operative work or diversified occupations has been evolved. In other instances there has been a hesitancy to act. This hesitancy may be due, in part, to the time and effort required to initiate and administer the program, but the fact that the procedures and the techniques to be followed have not been clearly outlined is, perhaps, of comparable importance in the delay.

The purpose of this article is to report briefly the methods which the junior colleges in the United States have used in initiating, administering, and co-ordinating co-operative work programs. In the past, no extensive surveys have been made of this type of education at the junior-college level, although Eells, in a questionnaire survey made prior to writing *Present Status of Junior College Terminal*

*Education*, asked for the following information:

If the junior college co-operates with local industries, professional groups, or trade unions to provide apprenticeship in the occupation covered by this curriculum, describe the arrangement.<sup>1</sup>

Of the 272 institutions replying to Eells's questionnaire, 71 stated that they carried on some type of co-operative program. It is believed that these seventy-one, plus two others which were called to the attention of the present investigator, represent practically all the junior colleges that have co-operative courses. The following data were obtained from questionnaires sent to these seventy-three junior colleges during the autumn and winter of 1941-42. The survey was made as one aspect of the three-year study of co-operative education which is being conducted under the sponsorship of the American Association of Junior Colleges.

<sup>1</sup> Walter Crosby Eells, *Present Status of Junior College Terminal Education*, p. 261. Prepared for the Commission on Junior College Terminal Education. Terminal Education Monograph No. 2. Washington: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941.

The questionnaire was constructed to bring out the following: (1) departments in which the co-operative work was offered; (2) number of students involved; (3) period of alternation; (4) year in which the program was initiated; and (5) techniques employed in initiating and administering the school work program.

The data obtained with respect to the first four of these factors have already been reported in some detail elsewhere,<sup>1</sup> but for purposes of review a brief summary of the statistical results is given here. Thirty-four junior colleges reported programs which might be classified as co-operative, with a total of 1,400 students enrolled in 25 different curriculums. The number of co-operative business curriculums (29), with 887 students participating, was far greater than the number in any other area. Engineering and technical curriculums ranked next, with seven programs enrolling 346 students. Relatively few curriculums were offered, and correspondingly few students enrolled, in agriculture, health services, home economics, and miscellaneous co-operative programs.

While the data given above are of interest, it is felt that an analysis of the techniques utilized in getting co-operative programs under way, in integrating the school and work experience, and in assigning administrative responsibilities would be of greater

value to administrators contemplating the organization of some type of work program.

#### INITIATING CO-OPERATIVE PROGRAMS

In the section of the questionnaire devoted to methods of initiating co-

TABLE 1  
TECHNIQUES UTILIZED BY 34 JUNIOR COLLEGES IN INITIATING CO-OPERATIVE WORK PROGRAMS

| DESCRIPTION OF METHOD   | COLLEGES REPORTING USE OF METHOD |             | COLLEGES REPORTING METHOD AS MOST SUCCESSFUL |             |
|---|----------------------------------|-------------|--|-------------|
|   | Num-<br>ber                      | Per<br>Cent | Num-<br>ber                                  | Per<br>Cent |
| Programs were requested by industries or stores .....   | 7                                | 12          | 2  | 8           |
| Advisory committee of businessmen and faculty members worked together .....   | 20                               | 33          | 9  | 34          |
| Department head took initiative and made all arrangements .....   | 19                               | 32          | 7  | 27          |
| Co-ordinator (full or part-time) was appointed for this job .....   | 14                               | 23          | 8  | 31          |
| Programs were requested by industries through central organization, such as chamber of commerce or a service club ..... |                                  |             |  |             |
| Other methods .....   |                                  |             |  |             |
| Total .....   | 60*                              | 100         | 26   | 100         |

\* This total refers to the number of times various techniques were mentioned. Nineteen institutions utilized only one technique; fourteen used two; three used three; and one employed four.

operative programs, five of the techniques most commonly used were listed, and space was provided for entering other techniques. Junior-college administrators were asked to check

<sup>1</sup> Leo F. Smith, "Co-operative Work Programs in Junior Colleges," *School and Society*, LVI (October 3, 1942), 305-7.

the methods which their institutions had used and to indicate with two check marks the methods which had proved most successful. Table 1 summarizes the answers given by the thirty-four institutions reporting co-operative work programs.

It appears that advisory committees, department heads, and co-or-

the majority of co-operative courses enrolling any considerable number of students were in the field of distributive occupations. In these instances the junior-college administrators have taken advantage of the provisions of the George-Deen Act which enable schools to be partially reimbursed for the salary of the co-ordinator pro-

TABLE 2  
INDIVIDUALS CHARGED WITH MAJOR RESPONSIBILITIES IN ADMINISTERING  
CO-OPERATIVE WORK PROGRAMS IN 34 JUNIOR COLLEGES

| INDIVIDUAL RESPONSIBLE | LOCATING JOBS |          | SELECTING APPLICANTS FOR JOBS |          | CO-ORDINATING SCHOOL AND WORK EXPERIENCES |          | COUNSELING STUDENTS ABOUT JOB PROGRESS |          | COUNSELING STUDENTS ABOUT ACADEMIC AND PERSONAL PROBLEMS |          |
|------------------------|---------------|----------|-------------------------------|----------|---|----------|--|----------|--|----------|
|                        | Number        | Per Cent | Number                        | Per Cent | Number                                    | Per Cent | Number                                 | Per Cent | Number   | Per Cent |
| Co-ordinator.....      | 13            | 45       | 12                            | 43       | 14  | 47       | 12                                     | 43       | 9  | 39       |
| Department head.....   | 12            | 41       | 12                            | 43       | 12  | 40       | 13                                     | 46       | 9  | 39       |
| Faculty member.....    | 4             | 14       | 4                             | 14       | 4   | 13       | 2                                      | 7        | 5  | 22       |
| Personnel man.....     |               |          |                               |          |   |          | 1                                      | 4        |  |          |
| Total.....             | 29            | 100      | 28                            | 100      | 30  | 100      | 28                                     | 100      | 23   | 100      |

dinators work out about equally well and have been utilized about the same number of times. When the data in Table 1 were analyzed according to the geographical regions in which the junior colleges were located, it was noticed that in New England the department heads were responsible most frequently for initiating the programs, whereas in the Middle West and the Far West advisory committees and co-ordinators were utilized most extensively. The greater use of co-ordinators in the latter areas may be partially explained by the fact that

vided he is employed in supervising or directing distributive-occupations subjects.

#### ADMINISTERING CO-OPERATIVE WORK PROGRAMS

In order that a picture might be obtained of the duties which various members of the staff assumed in the administration of the co-operative program, the respondents were asked to indicate the duties for which these individuals had major responsibility. Table 2 indicates the number and the percentage of times these duties were

reported. Here, as in the initiation of co-operative work programs, the several duties appeared to be assumed about an equal number of times by co-ordinators and department heads. The same geographical difference already mentioned in the foregoing paragraphs was also apparent here.

#### CO-ORDINATING SCHOOL AND WORK EXPERIENCE

One of the chief advantages claimed for co-operative education is that it enables students to make practical applications of the theory studied in school. This understanding on the part of the students, however, does not develop to any considerable degree unless definite provision is made for co-ordinating the school and the job experience. The administrators answering the questionnaire were asked to indicate the techniques employed by their institutions to bring about this understanding, the frequency with which the methods were utilized, and the individual responsible for putting the techniques into action. The methods listed on the questionnaire were:

1. Co-ordination classes in school. If so, how often are classes held?
2. Co-operative work reports from students. If so, how often are these required?
3. Planned individual counseling following the work blocks. If so, who does the counseling?
4. Co-ordination classes in industry. If so, who conducts the classes?
5. Co-ordinator's visits to students on the job. If so, approximately how often does the co-ordinator contact each student?
6. Other techniques (please indicate).

In nineteen instances it was reported that co-ordination classes were held in school. The frequency and the time devoted to these meetings varied from three class hours a day to one class hour a week, with one hour a day being reported the greatest number of times. A study of the answers to this question indicated that there was considerable difference of opinion about what constituted a co-ordination class. In one or two instances all subjects related to the student's major field of employment were considered co-ordination classes—a practice which explains the report of the giving of three hours a day to co-ordination. In the majority of cases, however, only those periods devoted to a discussion of the problems which students encountered on the job or to a consideration of the relations between academic and practical experiences were considered co-ordination classes.

Co-operative work reports were also mentioned in nineteen instances. The number of reports required from students varied from one a day to two a semester, with weekly and monthly reports being noted most frequently. In cases in which daily reports were required, students generally indicated on a check list the types of experiences that they had received during the day on the job. When reports were required at less frequent intervals, there was a tendency to require the student to write a report on some phase of the organization of the business or industry in which he was employed.

Twenty-four of the junior colleges carrying on co-operative work programs stated that they made provisions for planned individual counseling following the work blocks. In ten institutions the department head assumed this responsibility; in seven, the faculty; in six, the co-ordinator; and in one, the president.

None of the junior colleges replying to the questionnaire indicated that co-ordination classes were carried on by the co-operating industries or businesses.

In twenty-two cases it was reported that the co-ordinator visited the students while they were at work on the job. The frequency of these visits varied from one a week to one every three months, with one visit a month being reported the greatest number of times.

Other techniques of co-ordinating which were reported included visits between the personnel men and the co-ordinators and the submitting of reports by the co-operating industries to the junior colleges.

#### SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING THE CO-OPERATIVE PROGRAM

The last question raised on the questionnaire was: "In what ways do you think the co-operative work program might be improved so as to be more beneficial to the students, institution, and community?"

Only twenty replies were received to this question, but some of these indicated that there were certain rather

common problems which caused concern to the institutions and the individuals responsible for these programs. Some of the suggestions and comments are quoted below.

*From New England.*—We need careful selection, orientation, job and school integration, and a well-planned co-ordination program while the student is in school.

*From the Deep South.*—Work should result in permanent employment more frequently. Failure of this lies usually in the fact that students have not been seriously interested in the job assignment. Too often the job hasn't the proper future.

*From the Rocky Mountain States.*—More and better co-ordination would develop the program.

*From the Southwest.*—The desirability of continuing the course is doubtful, as students wishing employment can obtain it without apprenticeship experience.

*From the Middle West.*—More co-operation from business firms, i.e., more participation.

*From California.*—I wish we could interest more students, use more publicity, show merchants and students alike what programs of this type can do for them.

It should be noted that, of all the replies received, the response from the Southwest was the only one in which the desirability of the program was questioned. In the majority of instances the administrators wished to see it extended still further.

#### CONCLUSIONS FROM THE SURVEY

Despite the interesting and commendable efforts which have been made to provide realistic education, co-operative work programs in junior colleges have not as yet attained great

prominence; for only thirty-four institutions reported such programs, with a total of fourteen hundred students enrolled. The institutions which have these programs indicated that the use of advisory committees, department heads, and co-ordinators worked out about equally well in getting the programs under way. About equal numbers of co-ordinators and department heads have assumed the administrative responsibilities of locating jobs; selecting students for the jobs; co-ordinating the school and the work experience; and counseling students regarding their job progress, academic difficulties, and personal problems. Faculty members have also assumed

these responsibilities, but less frequently. Efforts to co-ordinate the school and the work experience have been made through planned individual counseling following the work block, co-ordinator's visits to students on the job, co-operative work reports, and co-ordination classes in school. With one exception, the administrators agreed that co-operative work had much to offer. These individuals were also apparently sensitive to the fact that there are many problems of administration and co-ordination which require continuous attention and study if the program is to be of optimum value to the student, the college, and the industries concerned.

## FILMS FOR ASIATIC STUDIES IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

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THE term "United Nations" can become meaningful to the peoples concerned only if there exist mutual trust, understanding, and respect. The conflict in the Pacific has awakened the American people to a realization of great gaps in their knowledge of the Asiatic area. To remedy this situation, the schools are turning their faces to the Orient with renewed interest and enthusiasm. The pressing need, however, is for vital, realistic materials which present a true and well-rounded picture of peoples and lands too long shrouded in mystery. A correct understanding of this arena of conflict and hope is augmented by the judicious use of appropriate films. Fortunately a number of such films are readily available.

To assist the teacher in choosing the proper film to meet his purpose, the writer has prepared the following briefly annotated list. Space has not permitted a complete listing of all the films available, even were complete listing desirable. As is true of the films on any topic, those on the Asiatic area vary greatly in desirable educational qualities. Far too many stress the bizarre, the unusual, the atypical. Hence this list gives the titles of a

limited number of films which have been selected because of the accurate, balanced picture which they present. Pictures issued only on 35mm. (theatrical size) film have been eliminated, since they possess little value in most teaching situations. No mention is ordinarily made of films too long to be shown in a classroom period of forty or fifty minutes. Finally, many films have been eliminated because they fall short of accepted standards for classroom use. The films included have been selected on the basis of (1) published evaluations, (2) actual classroom use, and (3) reports by classroom teachers on the effectiveness of the films.

Persons who wish further information concerning any of the pictures on this list should consult one or more of the following guides:

*Films on the Pacific Area.* New York: American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations (129 East Fifty-second Street), 1939 [needs to be brought up to date].

*Selected Educational Motion Pictures: A Descriptive Encyclopedia.* Prepared for the Committee on Motion Pictures in Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1942.

Dorothy E. Cook and Eva Rahbek-Smith (compilers), *Educational Film Catalog* (cumu-

lative two-year supplement and quarterly supplement beginning in 1936). New York: H. W. Wilson Co.

"Film Evaluation Supplements." Chicago: Educational Screen, 1940 (and at frequent intervals).

The films in the following list are arranged in alphabetical order under a series of geographical headings. The number of reels is given to guide the teacher in preparing the lesson plan. The actual running time of a one-reel sound film is from ten to eleven minutes. The projection of a one-reel silent film requires ten minutes. The rental rate given is ordinarily for one day's use, not including time in transit. The word "loan" is used instead of "rental" to signify that the film is available at no cost except that the borrower pays transportation charges both ways. As a means of conserving space, only the distributor's name or initials are given. A directory of distributors, with addresses, will be found at the end of the list. The date given is the date upon which the film was first issued.

#### AUSTRALIA

*Australia Marches with Britain.* 2 reels, sound. Loan. Australian News, 1941.

Although the theme of this film is Australia's war effort, it presents a good picture of the resources of the island continent. Concerned largely with farms producing wheat, wool, meat, butter, cheese, and eggs. Also shows the lumber supplied by Australia.

*Australia's Industries.* 4 one-reel films, sound. Loan. Australian News, 1941.

*Golden Fleece* shows the sheep and wool industry of Australia; *Among the Hardwoods*, the lumber industry in jarrah and karri forests of

southwestern Australia; *Timber*, the lumber industry near Melbourne; and *Vineyard of Empire*, a general view of the wine industry.

*Canberra, Australia's Federal Capital.* 1 reel, sound. Loan. Australian News, 1939.

Historical and pictorial account of the building of Australia's capital. Ceremonies attendant on the opening of parliament in Canberra by the present King and Queen of England are shown.

*Heart of Australia.* 1 reel, sound. Loan. Australian News, 1941.

Gives an overview of the continent from Sydney and Adelaide to Alice Springs in the center of the continent. Good shots of the Palm Valley Oasis, of the cliffs of Glen Helen Gorge, and of dances of the aborigines.

*Nation Builders.* 3 reels, sound or silent. Rental, \$3.75. Bell & Howell, 1938.

Although an amateur production, this film is well worth showing to school classes. Traces the history of Australia from the landing of Captain Cook in 1770.

*Wandering Westward.* 1½ reels, sound. Loan. Australian News, 1941.

Good views of Australian cities, aborigines, Darwin and its militia, buffalo-hunting, Tenants Creek gold field, Alice Springs, Palm Valley Oasis, and the Cooker Pady opal field.

#### CHINA

*Children of China.* 1 reel, sound. Sale, \$45. Erpi, 1940. (May be rented from most film libraries.)

This film can be highly recommended as a well-rounded presentation of home life, school life, and play life among the various classes of Chinese. The film is set in the city of Kwan Shin and its surrounding farms. It pictures a typical day in the lives of Lee Wing Kwong's family. Two children, Lee Shiu Ming, and his sister, Mei Ling, are the center of interest. Their grandfather is seen employing the village scribe to write a letter, while their father works on his farm. The children, after a breakfast eaten in the Chinese fashion, go to school, where we see them at work. Brief episodes are introduced at

this point to show the occupations of the parents of the various children who are in attendance at the school. The film ends with the family together in their home, preparing the evening meal. This picture was produced in collaboration with Professor L. C. Goodrich, of Columbia University. Although photographed in the midst of the war with Japan, the film gives no reference to the war.

*China.* 1 reel, sound. Rental, \$1.25. Bell & Howell, 1936 [approximate].

A good film for orienting pupils to the geographical location of China, its struggle with Japan, and its changing culture.

*China, Our Neighbor.* A series of 8 reels, silent. Rental. Harmon, 1932. Each reel may be rented separately, and each tells a complete story. The films are: (1) *China and America*, (2) *China's Home Life*, (3) *How China Makes a Living*, (4) *China's Children*, (5) *Three Great Religions of China*, (6) *Arts of China*, (7) *Education in China*, and (8) *Mr. Chang Takes a Chance*.

These films possess the advantage of unity of content, each dealing with a separate phase of Chinese life. *China and America* compares the resources and the industrial development of the two nations. *China's Home Life* takes us inside the Chinese home and shows us the customs of the people. *How China Makes a Living* pictures the varieties of occupations in workaday China. *Three Great Religions of China* shows the prominent place of religion in the lives of the Chinese. *Arts of China* pictures outstanding examples of Chinese architecture, painting, silk-making, and sculpture. *Education in China* is a good view of the school system from elementary school through college. *Mr. Chang Takes a Chance* deals with the introduction of modern medical practices.

*The Door of Asia.* 1 reel, sound. Rental, \$1.50. Gutlohn, Ideal, 1934.

A good introductory film on China. Unique in its views of the waterways and the camel caravans. Fair glimpses of craftsmen at work. All too brief views of home life, but good scenes of agricultural China.

*The 400,000,000.* 6 reels, sound. Rental. Garrison, 1939.

Ordinarily films as long as this one are not included here, but it is worth the trouble of disarranging schedules to show this outstanding picture. Presents a historical record of the events in China since its rebirth under Sun Yat-Sen. Early attempts at industrialization and Japan's attempts at dominance are shown. The determination to resist Japanese aggression is particularly well pictured, with scenes of resistance in the outlying areas of this vast country.

*The Good Earth.* 3 reels, sound. Rental, \$1.50 a week. New York University, 1939. (Each excerpt deals with a special phase of Chinese life.)

The excerpts from *The Good Earth* are so powerfully portrayed, staged, and acted that many teachers have found them extremely useful in fostering interest in the Chinese. However, because they deal with unusual aspects of Chinese life and because they were made for the theater rather than the schoolroom, pupils need to understand that, although they picture part of China, they are not a picture of all China. "The Famine" sequence shows the struggle for survival among the peasant farmers. "The Locusts" sequence shows the fight against a swarm of locusts and gives a good picture of the struggle between conservative tradition and progressive youth. The "Status of Women" sequence deals with marriage, women's work, and their subservience to men.

*People of Western China: Farmers of Forty Centuries.* 1 reel, sound. Sale, \$45. Erpi, 1940. (May be rented from many film libraries.)

An excellent picture for showing the contrast between modern and ancient Chinese culture. Centers in the farm lands around Chengtu. The farmers are seen cultivating their lands with the aid of an ancient irrigation system, grinding their grain, and preparing their produce for market. The craftsmen of the village mold pottery, hammer silver, spin silk, and make a variety of objects of bamboo. In the midst of this ancient culture we see modern telephones, power plants, automobiles, and airplanes. China in the midst of change clings, however, to much of her tradi-

tional way of life. This film was made in collaboration with O. J. Caldwell, formerly of West China Union University.

*This Is China.* 4 reels, sound. Rental, \$6.00. Commonwealth, Ideal, 1937.

A useful over-all picture of modern China. Good sequences on agriculture, social customs, schools, and epidemics. Includes a short history of the war with Japan. Sympathetic with the Chinese people, this film provides much of the background needed for an understanding of China.

#### DUTCH EAST INDIES: GENERAL

*The Dutch East Indies.* 1 reel, silent. Sale, \$24. Eastman, 1931. (May be rented from most film libraries.)

An overview picture worth using as an introduction to a study of the East Indies. Visits Sumatra, Borneo, and Celebes. Deals briefly with harvesting and loading of rubber, spices, and rattan.

*Isles of the East Indies.* 1 reel, sound. Rental, \$5.00 for two weeks. Teaching Film, 1937.

A film of the travel type, giving a general picture of street scenes, village life, and ceremonial dances. Shows native markets, carts, canal boats, and dances. Stresses the exotic.

#### DUTCH EAST INDIES: BALI

*Bali.* 1 reel, sound or silent. Rental, \$1.50 or \$1.00. Burton Holmes, Bell & Howell, Ideal, 1936.

Pictures physical and social aspects of island life. A long sequence on the harvesting of rice. Brief views of religious observances, native music, and home life.

#### DUTCH EAST INDIES: JAVA

*Bit of Life in Java.* 1 reel, silent. Rental, \$1.50. Bell & Howell, Burton Holmes, Ideal, 1928.

Although somewhat old, this film is the best available for a general view of Java. Good geographical orientation. Pictures the people, their transportation devices, and markets. Contrasts native Java with the modern Dutch cities.

*Glimpses of Picturesque Java.* 1 reel, sound or silent. Rental, \$1.50 or \$1.00. Nu-Art, 1941.

Although the title would lead one to expect an overview of the island, the film confines itself largely to Batavia. Among the phases of life pictured are residences, business houses, hotels, railways, canals, shrines, and monuments.

*High Stakes in the East.* 1 reel, sound. Rental, \$1.50. Brandon, 1942.

A color film of the island of Java with commentary by Irving Jacoby. Stresses the economic importance of the island, the reasons for the Japanese invasion, and the importance of recapture by the United Nations.

#### DUTCH EAST INDIES: SUMATRA

*Batak of Sumatra.* 1 reel, silent. Rental, Harvard, Films of Commerce, 1929.

About the only film on Sumatra worth showing, and merely fair at that. Gives an idea of the natives of the land. Deals mostly with the Batak of northwestern Sumatra. An interesting sequence on primitive agriculture.

#### FRENCH INDO-CHINA

*Outpost of France.* 1 reel, sound. Rental, \$5.00 for two weeks. Teaching Film, 1937.

A film of the travel type, with emphasis on the ruins of Angkor Vat. Contains enough on the life of the people to give pupils an idea of the nature of native life. Scenes of native life include fishing, dancing, and music.

#### INDIA

*Benares.* 1 reel, silent. Rental, \$1.00. Bell & Howell, 1935.

A silent film worth using because of the variety of Indian life which is pictured. A good sequence on the importance of the river Ganges as a holy shrine. The cremation ceremony is pictured. Among the occupational groups shown are barbers, masseurs, and chiropodists. In Calcutta are seen primitive means of transportation, temples, fire-worshippers, the ever-present beggars, and members of the upper class.

*Changing Face of India.* 1 reel, sound. Rental, \$1.00. British Library, 1942.

A good picture to show the everyday life of the people of India. Stresses industrial development brought about under British rule but admits and pictures the great agricultural basis for Indian life. Life in the cities is well portrayed.

*Delhi.* 1 reel, sound, color. Rental: apply Teaching Film, 1942.

Good for showing the contrast between the old and the new India. A picture map of India locates Delhi. Part of the ruins of the eight cities of Delhi are shown. We see the tombs of the Moguls, the Tower of Victory, and the Pearl Mosque. The traditional dress of the Indian women is shown in a long sequence. We then see modern Delhi, with the business center, government buildings, and its architectural mixture of European and Indian tradition. This film stresses change through architectural differences.

*Delhi: Agra.* 1 reel, silent. Rental, \$1.00. Bell & Howell, 1934.

A good picture on the Delhi section of India. Pictures camel carts, mosques, markets, scarcity of water, life in Agra, street scenes, the city wall, snake-charmers, and finally the Taj Mahal.

*India: Hyderabad.* 1 reel, silent. Sale, \$24. Eastman, 1940. (May be rented from film libraries.)

One of a series of three Eastman films on India. Each deals with sufficiently limited material to make the coverage of a particular section of India fairly complete. Sequences on modern railway transportation in the city of Hyderabad, government mint and printing office, agriculture, silver filigree work, rug-weaving, and education in mosque schools and in westernized universities.

*India: Mysore and Ceylon.* 1 reel, silent. Sale, \$24. Eastman, 1940. (May be rented from film libraries.)

Contrasts modern and ancient ways of living. Pictures hydroelectric plants, gold-mining, chemical industry, silk-weaving, gathering of coconuts and betel nuts, the streets and labor of Colombo.

*India: Punjab.* 1 reel, silent. Sale, \$24. Eastman, 1940. (May be rented from many film libraries.)

A better balanced picture than the other two in the series. Shows seasonal rainfall and irrigation farming; baking of bread, spinning, and other household activities; market places, schools, and buildings in Delhi; transportation in the city; and religious observances.

*Indian Durbar.* 1 reel, sound, color. Rental: apply Teaching Film, 1942.

A good, richly colored picture of a festival, or durbar, in the independent Indian state of Rajputana. Sequence on the procession is especially good for showing the luxurious trappings of the potentates. The durbar opens with a religious ceremony. Then the maharaja receives his visitors, and they are entertained with songs and dances. Closes with views of the maharaja's palace and the gardens of the women's quarters.

*The Jungle.* 1 reel, sound, color. Rental: Teaching Film, 1942.

A good picture of the Indian jungle. Ordinarily animal pictures are not included in this list, but this film is outstanding in the way in which it introduces the pupil to the jungle environment. The colors of the jungle are beautifully portrayed. Among the animals shown are tigers, water buffaloes, alligators, vultures, monkeys, and pythons. A sequence shows a fight between a mongoose and a cobra.

*Land of Shalimar.* 2 reels, sound. Rental, \$2.00. Garrison, 1936.

A good film on the people and their occupations. Pictures the primitive lumber industry, river traffic, the maharaja's goats, the lakes, agriculture, the rice fields, pottery-making, religious dances, and the Taj Mahal.

*A Road in India.* 1 reel, sound. Rental: apply Teaching Film, 1942.

A fair picture of various phases of life along an Indian road. Not so good as others in the series but definitely valuable for enriching the pupils' views on Indian life. Camel carts, elephants, and motor vehicles move along the highway. We see a maharaja with his retinue, in-

cluding an Indian dancing girl. Along the side of the road are yogis, fakirs, snake-charmers, barbers, and markets. The commentator's voice is somewhat lacking in clearness.

*The Sacred Ganges.* 1 reel, sound, color. Rental: apply Teaching Film, 1942.

Good for showing the importance of the holy river, the Ganges, in the life of the Hindu. A general view of the city of Benares with its temples is followed by scenes along the river banks. Yogis are seen holding their tortuous poses. A Hindu priest teaches those who stop to listen. The children, the sick, and the infirm bathe in the waters. Garments are washed, never to be worn again but to be taken home and venerated. As the film closes, smoke from cremated bodies rises above the waters of the holy river.

*Sojourn in India.* 1 reel, sound. Rental, \$5.00 for two weeks. Teaching Film, 1939.

One of the best short travel pictures. Shows business and residential sections and the market places of Calcutta and Bombay. The caste system is explained, and members of each caste are shown.

*This Is India.* 1 reel, sound. Rental, \$1.50. Gutlohn, 1942.

Especially good on castes, taboos, and social customs. Does a fairly good job of explaining the political views of the various social classes and the reasons for India's desire for independence.

*A Village in India.* 1 reel, sound, color. Rental: apply Teaching Film, 1942.

Excellent for its picture of village life in India. The picture opens as the men gather to pray for good crops. The commentator explains some of the complications of religion in India. Everyday activities, such as spinning, weaving, and block-printing of cloth, are shown. There is a sequence on wrestling. The hold of superstition on the people is illustrated by a sequence of a couple who refuse to leave their house because a man sneezes near them. In brief scenes young women are shown being initiated into the community of married women, and boys are admitted into the circle of men. During a wed-

ding celebration a fire breaks out, and the next day the village starts to rebuild its homes. Pupils will like this film because it introduces them to everyday life of the people. It could profit by more close-ups.

*Wheels across India.* 3 reels, sound. Loan. Wilding, American Museum, Y.M.C.A., 1940.

A record of the Armand Denis and Leila Roosevelt Asiatic expedition. Maps orient us to the scenes along the way. Many scenes of life in Rangoon and the temples of that land are shown. River traffic is well pictured. The work of the elephant in the forest is shown. The final sequence pictures a village of snake-worshippers and shows a priestess in the act of kissing a king cobra on the head three times to appease him so that he will allow boy babies to be born in the village. This scene is so powerful that the pupils to whom this reviewer showed the film rather forgot the rest of the picture.

#### JAPAN

*Children of Japan.* 1 reel, sound. Sale, \$45. Erpi, 1940. (May be rented from film libraries.)

A splendid film for introducing pupils to an understanding of the nature of modern Japan. Taro Yamada and his sister, Yukiko, are on their way to school. They pass rice and tea fields and see the fishermen putting out to sea. Their father works in the railroad station. At school we see the children at work and at play. After school we see the family on an excursion, and finally they are shown in their home eating in the Japanese fashion. This film was produced in collaboration with Professor Hugh Borton, of Columbia University.

*Japan and Her Problems.* Silent, 2 reels. Rental, \$3.00. Harmon, 1936.

A good general view of Japanese life. Gives a brief history and an introduction to the nature of the Japanese islands. Shows how the country has been westernized and industrialized. Home life, religion, and government are pictured. Tries to give a fair picture of the economic and the social problems confronting Japan in the early 1930's.

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*Know Your Enemy Japan.* 1 reel, sound. Rental, \$1.50. Princeton, 1942.

A good picture of the resources of Japan. Shows industrial development, transportation, and way of life. Also reviews recent military development.

*This Is Japan.* 1 reel, sound. Loan. American Museum, Y.M.C.A., 1940.

A Japanese propaganda film, picturing the beauties of the country. Opens with a view of the emperor's house and the mixture of modern conveniences and traditional costumes. Shows restaurants, fishing, shrines, washing of silks, and city street scenes.

#### JAPAN: FORMOSA

*Farmers of Formosa.* 1 reel, silent. Rental, \$1.00. Bell & Howell, 1932.

Only a fair film but worth showing as an introduction to life on this island. Shows low estate of laborers on tea plantations. Sequences on cultivation of rice and sugar.

#### JAPAN: KOREA

*Korean Farming.* 3 reels, silent. Rental, \$3.00. Harmon, 1932.

Shows the Korean struggle for existence. A good view of home life and farming. Lengthy sequence on festivals.

#### MALAYA

*Five Faces of Malaya.* 3 reels, sound. Rental, \$3.00. Gutlohn, 1938.

A film of the travel type portraying the British point of view toward the Malay Peninsula. Shows native life, hunting, harvesting of rice and rubber, and tin-mining. The phrase "Five Faces" refers to the various racial groups living on the peninsula. Stresses the progress of the natives under British rule.

*Rubber and Raffles.* 1 reel, sound. Rental, \$1.00. Bell & Howell, Ideal, Y.M.C.A., 1934.

A travel film which gives rather a good idea of rubber resources. Lays some stress on jungle animals and how they are captured for zoos and circuses.

#### MANCHUKUO

*Manchukuo.* 2 reels, sound. Rental, \$3.00. Bell & Howell, Gutlohn, Ideal, 1939.

A good introduction to the activities of the people. Pictures travels to main cities and visits to coal and iron mines. Presents a good sequence on farming.

*Manchukuo.* 1 reel, silent. Sale, \$24. Eastman, 1937. (May be rented from many film libraries.)

A good overview. In the beginning we enter the harbor at Dairen. The Japanese influence is noted. Then are shown quick views of railroads, factories, mines, natives, Europeans, markets, and schools.

#### NEW GUINEA

*Air Roads to Gold.* 1 reel, sound. Loan. Australian News, 1941.

Views over Papua, the Australian section of the mainland of New Guinea. The views of the wild mountain scenery were taken from one of the planes flying from Port Moresby to the gold fields. The film shows how transport planes which carried gold-dredging machinery over impenetrable country made possible the exploitation of New Guinea's gold.

#### NEW ZEALAND

*Land of Contentment.* 1 reel, sound. Rental, \$5.00 for two weeks. Teaching Film, 1937.

A travelogue which stresses the scenic aspects but contains enough social information to make it worth presenting to pupils. Visits Christchurch, New Plymouth, and the Maoris in the outlying districts. Good sequences on New Zealand farms.

*New Zealand—the White Man's Paradise.* 1 reel, sound. Rental, \$5.00 for two weeks. Teaching Film, 1939.

One of the best films on New Zealand because it gives a picture of city and country life. Animated maps help to locate the islands and their principal points of interest. Scenes of the Maoris' village life are contrasted with city living. A number of scenes showing the terrain help pupils to understand the nature of the islands.

## RUSSIA (ASIATIC)

*One Day in Soviet Russia.* 5 reels, sound.  
Rental: apply Brandon, 1941.

An interesting film showing various aspects of Russian life. Especially valuable in the sections picturing Russia as an important Asiatic country. Actually taken in one day by ninety-seven camera men posted in various parts of the country.

## SAMOA

*Life in the South Seas.* 1 reel, sound. Rental, \$1.50. Bell & Howell, 1935.

Good on home life and agriculture. A few too many coconuts and not so many orientation shots as one might wish.

*Samoan Memories.* 1 reel, sound. Rental, \$5.00 for two weeks. Teaching Film, 1938.

A good picture of native life. We see village schools, natives, idols, and the harvesting of coconuts and of breadfruit. Close-ups show the headdresses of native women and the tattooing of men. The usual native dance is included.

## SIAM

*Siamese Journey.* 2 reels, sound. Rental, \$2.50. Bell & Howell, 1937.

A good travelogue showing native life, cities, and general nature of the country. Stresses scenes of animal life somewhat more than might be desired. Pictures the sacred white elephant, a fight between a cobra and a mongoose, and fighting fish. It contrasts the life of the wealthy Siamese with the wretched conditions of the poor. Good scenes of modern Bangkok and the River Bangkok.

## DIRECTORY OF FILM SOURCES

Akin & Bagshaw, Inc., 1425 Williams Street,  
Denver, Colorado

American Museum of Natural History, Seventy-seventh Street and Central Park West, New York, New York

Audio-Film Libraries, 661 Bloomfield Avenue, Bloomfield, New Jersey

Australian News and Information Bureau,

610 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York  
Bell & Howell Co., 1801 West Larchmont Avenue, Chicago, Illinois; 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, New York; 716 North LaBrea Avenue, Hollywood, California

Brandon Films, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York, New York

Bray Pictures Corporation, 729 Seventh Avenue, New York, New York

British Library of Information, 620 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York

Burton Holmes Films, Library Department, 7510 North Ashland Avenue, Chicago, Illinois

Commonwealth Pictures Corporation, 729 Seventh Avenue, New York, New York

Eastman Kodak Co., Teaching Films Division, Rochester, New York

Edited Pictures System, Inc., 330 West Forty-second Street, New York, New York

Erpi Classroom Films, Inc., 35-11 Thirty-fifth Avenue, Long Island City, New York

Films, Inc., 330 West Forty-second Street, New York, New York; 64 East Lake Street, Chicago, Illinois; 314 Southwest Ninth Avenue, Portland, Oregon

Films of Commerce Co., Inc., Division of Instructional Films, 21 West Forty-sixth Street, New York, New York

Filmsets—DeVry Corporation, 1111 West Armitage Avenue, Chicago, Illinois

Garrison Film Distributors, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York, New York

Gordon Pictures, 729 Seventh Avenue, New York, New York

Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company, Motion Picture Department, Akron, Ohio

Gutlohn—Walter O. Gutlohn, Inc., 35 West Forty-fifth Street, New York, New York

Harmon Foundation, Inc., 140 Nassau Street, New York, New York

Harvard Film Service, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts

Ideal Pictures Corporation, 28-34 East Eighth Street, Chicago, Illinois; 2402 West Seventh Street, Los Angeles, California; 18 South Third Street, Memphis, Tennessee; Bertram Willoughby Pictures, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York, New York  
International Geographic Pictures, 52 Vanderbilt Avenue, New York, New York  
New York University Film Library, New York University, Washington Square, New York, New York  
Nu-Art Films, Inc., 145 West Forty-fifth Street, New York, New York  
Presbyterian Church, Board of Foreign Missions, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York  
Princeton Film Center, 106 Stockton Street, Princeton, New Jersey  
Teaching Film Custodians, Inc., 25 West Forty-third Street, New York, New York  
United States Navy Department, Washington, D.C.

Wilding Picture Productions, Inc., 7635 Grand River Avenue, Detroit, Michigan  
Y.M.C.A.—National Council of Young Men's Christian Associations, Motion Picture Bureau, 347 Madison Avenue, New York, New York; 19 South La Salle Street, Chicago, Illinois; 351 Turk Street, San Francisco, California; 1700 Patterson Street, Dallas, Texas

Many of the films listed above may be rented from film loan libraries. Most of the state universities and agricultural colleges and many state departments of education have departments of visual instruction which maintain loan libraries. Schools desiring to borrow films should communicate with their state university or with their state department of education.

## THE PLACE OF GENERAL LANGUAGE IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

JONAH W. D. SKILES

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**S**ECONDARY-SCHOOL courses in general language have come into being under unfortunate circumstances and consequently have met with disfavor in some quarters.

### IDEA OF AN EXPLORATORY COURSE

The first of these circumstances is the original idea behind the courses. When the exploratory movement was started in the junior high school, the purpose in general language was to develop a course, similar to the course in general science, which should enable the pupil to find out whether he wanted to study Latin, French, German, or Spanish in the senior high school. Consequently there was developed, at the seventh- or eighth-grade level, a short course of perhaps ten weeks, or at the most one semester, in which were taught a few lessons in each of these four languages. The result was, of course, that the pupil was confused in pronunciation, in vocabulary, and in the small amount of grammar given. Also his conceptions of the difficulties involved in language-study were not at all correct, for the beginning of a foreign language can usually be made very simple and easy.

This conception of general language

is, unfortunately, still with us. For example, a general-language course, given about 1935 in a certain senior high school, consisted in a sequence of four semesters, devoted one each to Latin, French, Spanish, and German, the aim being twofold: to let this four-semester sequence take the place of all foreign-language work and to furnish an orientation into further foreign-language study. Obviously it was a mistake to divide effort in four directions, with no real accomplishment in any direction; for in one semester there is not enough time to give even a basic linguistic introduction to any language, much less to attempt to develop the social and character-forming objectives. Happily this particular quadrilateral course has been much modified.

The prevalence, however, of this conception of general language may be seen from an examination of the high-school textbooks in general language and from the fact that in 1936 one of the foremost curriculum experts remarked to the writer, "There is no such thing as general language." In this expert's opinion, the only thing that a person interested in language in general might do was to learn

first one language, then another, and so on until he had covered the portion of the field in which he was interested. The expert was unable to see any possible synthesis. All this represents not the ideas of six or seven years ago but those current today; for in the summer of 1942 the head of a division of humanities in a prominent college indicated to the writer a conception that general language is largely exploratory and etymological.

#### INAPPROPRIATELY TRAINED TEACHERS

The second unfortunate circumstance has been that the teaching of the so-called "general-language" course was intrusted to a conventionally trained foreign-language teacher. Now one who has studied foreign languages in the usual college courses is not equipped to understand language in its broader aspects. Indeed, the person who teaches general language must know something about the structure of some non-Indo-European languages; in other words, he must know something about general linguistics. Furthermore, general-language books, when written by non-linguists, abound in inaccuracies, limited concepts, antiquated ideas, and absolutely incorrect statements. In fact, it is very difficult to find a textbook suited to the conception of general language set forth in this article. Many of the books provide a few lessons in several languages; others give most of the space to etymology; but hardly a

book really introduces the student to the field of *general language*.

#### INCORRECT GRADE PLACEMENT

The third unfortunate circumstance in connection with general language is the fact that the course has been confined to a grade level too low for the best acquisition of the concepts. This statement does not mean that at the seventh-grade level no general language can be taught. It is unfair, however, both to the pupils and to the possibilities of this course in the field of general education, for a concentrated linguistic course to be given in any junior high school grade with a view to obtaining great exploratory benefits in the selection of a language for further study. Some such benefits may result, but certainly the major objectives do not lie here. Furthermore, most general linguistic concepts and the application of these to everyday life require a background and a maturity that are possessed only rarely by a junior high school pupil, even in Grade IX.

On the other hand, as materials and techniques for general language are developed, it should be possible to develop, at the junior high school level, excellent courses of a very elementary nature with obtainable objectives. It does not seem advisable to attempt to outline such courses now; for one look at the textbooks in general language that have appeared for the junior high school level shows clearly that much more experimentation, research, and collection of materials are needed be-

fore the right sort of courses can be developed. Several considerations, however, can be suggested: (1) The courses should be exceedingly elementary. (2) They should include one or two hours a week throughout Grades VII and VIII (much as some of the general-science curriculums are developed). (3) The approach should be made through English.

If English is to be the basis of our efforts in the general-language course, a great part of the *elementary* work in general language must be the establishing of certain foundational concepts about the English language; for no linguist would ever hope to teach the general principles of language to a person who did not understand the basic structure of his own language. Since general courses in social studies, science, and mathematics have been given at the junior high school level, many have been led to propose a similar course in general language without first having taken cognizance of the real nature, the prerequisites, and the ultimate objectives of such a program.

One of the prime objectives, of course, in the teaching of general language in the secondary school is to bring about a better understanding of the English language and an increased facility in its use. This objective can be most effectively gained by the development of an ability to view English from the perspective acquired through comparison and contrast of the mother-tongue with other languages. To develop this ability, the general-

language teacher will first have to see that the student has a firm grounding in the fundamental English grammatical concepts before any attempt is made to render these more vivid and vital to him by comparison and contrast with fundamental concepts of other languages. Furthermore, the fact that the general-language teacher and all foreign-language teachers are the ones who are going to have to save these grammatical concepts which are so vital for exact understanding of the printed page and for precise diction is perfectly clear, not only from the functional trends of the language program in the elementary schools and of the English program in the secondary schools, but also from the results which are evident in any beginning course in a foreign language in either high school or college.

The proper level, then, for a strong course in general language would certainly be not lower than Grade X. Indeed, because of their nature, the concepts would be more thoroughly grasped and the objectives more readily attained if the course should be deferred until Grade XI or XII. To avoid misunderstanding, it should be repeated that the discussion here concerns a *strong* general-language course and is in no wise meant to deny the possibilities of certain *elementary* courses at lower levels. It would be ideal to provide a sequence of elementary courses which would lead up to a strong senior high school course and to an even stronger college course.

### SUBSTITUTING GENERAL LANGUAGE FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE

The fourth unfortunate circumstance in the development of general-language courses has been the intrusion of the idea, already noted, that general language could be substituted for courses in specific foreign languages. This almost naïve idea is somewhat comparable to substituting for the multiplication tables, descriptions and pictures of scientific and industrial machines that involve the use of mathematics, and for practice in learning to read, motion pictures showing the kinds of stories and events ordinarily found in reading exercises. Both of these devices have high cultural value and are excellent for the formation of attitudes, but they lack the crucial elemental procedures the mastery of which is altogether necessary for any individual and original advancement in the understanding and use of numbers or in the technique of getting information from the printed page.

Shocking to one having any real conception of the objectives of foreign-language study in the high school is the proposal in *What the High Schools Ought To Teach*:

If . . . foreign languages continue to consume the time that has been traditionally given to them in the past, it will be very difficult to build up a program of general education to include the new courses that have been recommended [by the committee] as desirable. Here again, certain recent experiments seem to show the way out of the situation. Why not serve directly, through a

course in general language, the chief needs that are presented by advocates of foreign languages, without attempting to secure that slender and doubtful degree of mastery that is the only outcome for most pupils of the present courses in these languages?<sup>1</sup>

These "recent experiments" presumably relate to general language, but the writer, who is conversant with the field of general language, knows of no experiments showing that general-language courses give the values commonly claimed for foreign-language courses.

### OBJECTIVES OF GENERAL- LANGUAGE COURSES

As an advocate of general-language courses which shall be supplementary and ancillary to the study of specific foreign languages, the writer suggests that the objectives of courses in general language are:

1. The development of language consciousness
2. The development of a consciousness of the place of language in social development
3. The development of a cosmopolitan feeling
4. A better understanding of English words and their ways
5. A more intelligent use of the dictionary
6. An appreciation of the causes of, and remedies for, "incorrectness" in grammar and diction
7. An addition to general cultural knowledge
8. A desire to probe further into some foreign tongue

<sup>1</sup> *What the High Schools Ought To Teach*, p. 29. The Report of a Special Committee on the Secondary School Curriculum. Prepared for the American Youth Commission and Other Co-operating Organizations. Washington: American Council on Education, 1940.

In other words, general language pays little, if any, attention to the detailed linguistic study so valuable for shaping a background for English vocabulary and grammar (both in the matter of sources and in the matter of perspective through comparison); to the disciplinary values of both grammatical study and translation; to the subtle nuances of thought of individual foreign languages (nuances so valuable for the development of cosmopolitan sympathies<sup>1</sup>); to the music and grandeur inclosed in *the original*<sup>2</sup> of the masterpieces of literature (so valuable for the understanding of human thought, human development, and human nature); to the *realia* inclosed in the foreign-language material read; and to literary values. The study of foreign languages, however, first emphasizes the applications to English and the disciplinary values and then opens full-blown into the study of human values.

The fundamental trouble, of course,

<sup>1</sup> The person who knows only English and a few Latin and Greek roots, prefixes, and suffixes, gathered from elementary etymological study, will more than likely feel that English is the incomparable way of expressing thought; whereas an intimate acquaintance with any foreign language will clear his mind of this provincial conception, for even "primitive" languages have possibilities for luxuriance of expression.

<sup>2</sup> Anyone who has read the *Iliad* both in Greek and in Pope's version, or Isaiah both in Hebrew and in the King James Version, will see the point here. Both translations are literary masterpieces in English, but neither gives the delicate overtones that mark the literature of the original. Reading a translation is like listening to a simple melodic transcription of a great symphony.

in expecting general language to yield the same values as does extended study in a specific foreign language is that general language with its one or two semesters has neither the time nor the materials to compare with the four to eight semesters given to foreign language. A three-month-old squash is a delightfully toothsome vegetable, with its own perfectly valid values and purposes, but it does not have the same values and purposes as a hundred-year-old oak—one does not build houses and bridges with squashes.

In order that the objectives, as given above, for the general-language program may be reached, the following units of study are suggested for a strong senior high school course.

1. The nature and the variety of language and its place in the social sciences
2. Phonetics
3. Linguistic change
4. The development of the Indo-European languages
5. Types of linguistic structure
6. The origin of language
7. Semantic change
8. The use of the dictionary
9. The origin of writing and the development of the alphabet
10. Standards in language (particularly in English)
11. Language and culture
12. Language and nationality
13. World languages
14. Language in the post-war reconstruction
15. The history of the English language

It is understood, of course, that in general-language programs below the

senior high school level such modifications would be made as the capabilities of the pupils demand.

#### SUMMARY

To sum up, general language should be a field of study in the secondary school, with a distinct place of its own in the building of significant personalities. It cannot take the place of foreign-language study but should be supplementary and ancillary to foreign-language study, by including such content and focusing on such objectives that even the pupil who is in his Senior year and in an advanced stage of foreign-language study may pursue the course in general language with maximum profit. Also it should be of such a nature, both in content and in objectives, that it can be elected by, or *required of*, the pupil who unfortunately will not study any foreign language but who may secure, from a course in general language, some idea of the scope of, and the possible values in, the field.

In conclusion, consider our cosmopolitan background in America and our consequent need to develop all the linguistic-social consciousness that we can:

We of the United States are: one-third of a million, Indian; one-third of a million, Oriental, Filipino, and Mexican; 60 million, Anglo-Saxon; 10 million, Irish; 15 million, Teutonic; 9 million, Slavic; 5 million, Italian; 4 million, Scandinavian; 2 million, French; 13 million, Negro; 1 million each, Finn, Lithuanian, Greek. . . .

There are today 30 million Americans who are the children born in the U.S. of immigrant parents.<sup>1</sup>

How better shall we approach the problem of assimilating this cultural diversity than by "speaking their language," if not the literal actuality, yet the sympathetic understanding begotten of knowledge, not of ignorance? How better shall we approach the problem of cultural and commercial relations with Latin America and the entire problem of hemisphere solidarity than by using the linguistic approach? How better shall we prepare for the international problems of post-war reconstruction than by developing sympathies begotten of linguistic understanding? Thus, and only thus, shall we achieve the greatest social objective of either general-language or foreign-language study—the development of cosmopolitan sympathies.

<sup>1</sup> Everett R. Clinchy, "Education and Human Relations," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXIX (November, 1940), 227.

## REACTIONS OF TEACHERS TO IN-SERVICE EDUCATION IN THEIR SCHOOLS

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THE Subcommittee on In-service Education of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has completed an exhaustive study of the most promising techniques used in a selected group of 247 secondary schools of the Association for educating teachers in service. The writer served as research assistant in that study, which was carried on under the chairmanship of G. Robert Koopman.<sup>1</sup>

### COMPARISON OF TWO GROUPS OF SCHOOLS

One phase of the inquiry, not reported elsewhere, was concerned with the reactions of teachers toward in-service education in two groups of schools using distinctly different types of techniques. The first group of schools reported frequent use of the techniques shown in List I below and infrequent use of the techniques shown in List II. The pattern of techniques used in the first group of schools for educating teachers in service was distinctly co-operative in character. The

second group of schools reported infrequent use of the techniques given in List I and frequent use of the techniques presented in List II. Thus the pattern of techniques for educating teachers in service in the second group of schools was distinctly principal-centered, traditional, supervisory, and individualistic, if not paternalistic.

#### LIST I

##### TECHNIQUES USED FREQUENTLY BY SCHOOLS IN GROUP A AND INFREQUENTLY BY SCHOOLS IN GROUP B

1. Having teachers preside at faculty meetings most of the time.
2. Electing committees to plan faculty meetings.
3. Employing panel discussions for conducting faculty meetings.
4. Organizing teachers into committees to study problems arising within the school.
5. Giving teachers a definite part in the selection of new members of the staff.
6. Using reports of teacher committees as the bases for action of the staff.
7. Having teachers choose their own leaders for discussion meetings.
8. Holding joint meetings of the board of education and the faculty.
9. Holding meetings of teachers, parents, pupils, and board members to study problems of the school.
10. Holding forums and panel discussion meetings in which teachers, pupils, and parents participate.

<sup>1</sup> The entire study is reported in four numbers of the *North Central Association Quarterly* beginning with July, 1942.

11. Having pupils, parents, teachers, and lay public serve on committees concerned with study of curricular and extra-curriculum problems of the school.

12. Including pupils, parents, and teachers on committees to study curriculum development.

13. Electing committees of teachers to work with parents, board members, and pupils in the evaluation of the school.

#### LIST II

##### TECHNIQUES SELDOM USED IN SCHOOLS IN GROUP A BUT FREQUENTLY USED IN SCHOOLS IN GROUP B

1. The principal plans faculty meetings most of the time.

2. The principal presides at faculty meetings most of the time.

3. The principal visits classes and confers with teachers after visiting.

4. The principal issues circulars and bulletins to teachers.

5. The principal issues bibliographies to teachers.

6. The principal reviews current educational literature for the staff.

7. The principal holds reading-circle meetings.

8. The principal lectures on educational topics at faculty meetings.

9. The principal appoints committees.

10. The principal demonstrates desirable teaching procedures.

11. The principal appoints department heads to serve as a committee on curriculum development.

12. The principal serves as chairman of appointed committees.

At the outset there were twenty-six schools in the first group and thirty-one schools in the second. From each group, twenty schools were selected for further inquiry. Twenty schools in the group using co-operative techniques (Group A) were

matched with twenty schools from the second group using the traditional pattern of techniques (Group B). Table 1 shows how these schools were matched.

Questionnaires were mailed to the principals in both groups of schools in sufficient numbers to supply the entire staff in each school. The principal was requested to give each teacher a

TABLE 1  
DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLS IN GROUPS A  
AND B, ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF  
TEACHERS ON THE STAFF

| NUMBER OF TEACHERS<br>ON STAFF | NUMBER OF SCHOOLS            |                             |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
|                                | Co-oper-<br>ative<br>Group A | Traditi-<br>onal<br>Group B |
| 50-200.....                    | 2                            | 2                           |
| 31-50.....                     | 2                            | 2                           |
| 21-30.....                     | 2                            | 2                           |
| 11-20.....                     | 8                            | 8                           |
| 10 or fewer.....               | 6                            | 6                           |
| Total.....                     | 20                           | 20                          |

copy. Self-addressed envelopes were included with each questionnaire. Teachers were requested to return the questionnaires directly to the writer without affixing their signatures and without indicating the name or the location of the school. Questionnaires sent to teachers in Group A were printed on paper different in color from that of the paper used for the questionnaires sent to teachers in Group B.

Data concerning the number of questionnaires sent and returned are summarized in Table 2. Examination

of this table leads to the conclusion that the percentage of teachers replying was about the same for the two groups of schools and that the distribution of teachers with respect to sex was about the same in both groups. Twenty-nine per cent of the teachers in Group A who returned their questionnaires were teaching in their

TABLE 2  
DISTRIBUTION OF QUESTIONNAIRES SENT  
TO TEACHERS IN SCHOOLS  
IN GROUPS A AND B

|   | CO-OPERA-TIVE GROUP A |          | TRADITIONAL GROUP B |          | BOTH GROUPS |          |
|---|-----------------------|----------|---------------------|----------|-------------|----------|
|   | Number                | Per Cent | Number              | Per Cent | Number      | Per Cent |
| <b>Questionnaires sent to teachers:</b> |                       |          |                     |          |             |          |
| Returned.....                           | 279                   | 47.3     | 213                 | 45.6     | 492         | 46.5     |
| Not returned..                          | 311                   | 52.7     | 254                 | 54.4     | 505         | 53.5     |
| Total.....                              | 590                   | 100.0    | 467                 | 100.0    | 1,057       | 100.0    |
| <b>Questionnaires returned:</b>         |                       |          |                     |          |             |          |
| By men.....                             | 137                   | 49.1     | 92                  | 43.2     | 229         | 46.5     |
| By women....                            | 142                   | 50.9     | 121                 | 56.8     | 203         | 53.5     |
| Total.....                              | 279                   | 100.0    | 213                 | 100.0    | 492         | 100.0    |

"home towns," while only 22 per cent of the teachers reporting from Group B were teaching under this condition. The proportion of teachers holding Masters' degrees was the same (40 per cent) for the two groups of schools.

Table 3 summarizes the situation in the two groups of schools with respect to extra-curriculum assignments of the teachers who reported. Apparently, the schools in Group A give greater attention to Girl Reserves, music, guidance, visual education, night schools, Boy Scouts, writers' organizations, home-room activities, and ex-

hibits than do the schools in Group B. Group B schools, on the other hand, put greater emphasis on boys' athletics, dramatics, class advisement,

TABLE 3  
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDING  
TEACHERS IN SCHOOLS IN GROUPS A AND  
B, ACCORDING TO EXTRA-CURRICULUM AS-  
SIGNMENTS

| EXTRA-CURRICULUM<br>ASSIGNMENT           | PERCENTAGE OF<br>TEACHERS    |                        |
|--|------------------------------|------------------------|
|  | Co-oper-<br>ative<br>Group A | Traditional<br>Group B |
| Boys' athletics.....                     | 11.5                         | 14.5                   |
| Clubs of all kinds.....                  | 14.3                         | 13.1                   |
| No extra-curriculum activi-<br>ties..... | 11.8                         | 10.8                   |
| Dramatics.....                           | 3.2                          | 9.4                    |
| Class advisers.....                      | 4.6                          | 7.5                    |
| Girl Reserves.....                       | 9.7                          | 6.1                    |
| Girls' athletics.....                    | 3.9                          | 4.7                    |
| Hi-Y.....                                | 1.1                          | 4.2                    |
| Debate.....                              | 1.4                          | 4.2                    |
| Forensics (excluding debate).....        | 1.1                          | 3.8                    |
| School newspaper.....                    | 3.2                          | 3.8                    |
| Administrative duties.....               | 1.1                          | 3.3                    |
| Future Farmers of America.....           | 2.2                          | 2.8                    |
| School yearbook.....                     | 1.4                          | 2.8                    |
| Junior Red Cross.....                    | .7                           | 1.9                    |
| Assembly programs.....                   | 2.2                          | 1.9                    |
| Glee clubs and bands.....                | 4.3                          | 1.4                    |
| Student councils.....                    | 1.4                          | .9                     |
| Guidance programs.....                   | 7.5                          | .9                     |
| Honor societies.....                     | .4                           | .5                     |
| Junior Classical League.....             | .4                           | .5                     |
| Library club.....                        | 1.1                          | .5                     |
| School cafeteria.....                    | 1.1                          | .5                     |
| Visual education.....                    | 3.2                          | .....                  |
| Night schools.....                       | 1.8                          | .....                  |
| Boy Scouts.....                          | 1.1                          | .....                  |
| Writers' organizations.....              | .4                           | .....                  |
| Home rooms.....                          | 3.2                          | .....                  |
| Displays and exhibits.....               | 0.7                          | .....                  |
| Total.....                               | 100.0                        | 100.0                  |

Hi-Y, debate, forensics, administrative duties, yearbooks, and Junior Red Cross work than do the schools in Group A.

Table 4 presents a comparison of

the years of teaching experience of the teachers in Groups A and B. The median for the co-operative group is somewhat higher than the median for the traditional group.

#### TEACHERS' EVALUATION OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING

The questionnaire sent to the teachers included a list of criteria for the

TABLE 4

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDING  
TEACHERS IN SCHOOLS IN GROUPS A AND  
B, ACCORDING TO YEARS OF TEACHING  
EXPERIENCE

| NUMBER OF YEARS OF<br>TEACHING EXPERIENCE | PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS       |                        |
|---|------------------------------|------------------------|
|   | Co-opera-<br>tive<br>Group A | Traditional<br>Group B |
| 40.....                                   | 1.1                          | .....                  |
| 35-39.....                                | 2.5                          | 3.8                    |
| 30-34.....                                | 6.8                          | 1.9                    |
| 25-29.....                                | 9.3                          | 5.6                    |
| 20-24.....                                | 12.9                         | 13.1                   |
| 15-19.....                                | 17.2                         | 15.0                   |
| 10-14.....                                | 17.2                         | 23.0                   |
| 5-9.....                                  | 15.4                         | 18.8                   |
| 4 or fewer.....                           | 17.6                         | 18.8                   |
| Total.....                                | 100.0                        | 100.0                  |
| Median number of<br>years.....            | 14.5                         | 12.2                   |

evaluation of in-service education programs in secondary schools.<sup>1</sup> At the left of each criterion a space for checking was provided. The teachers were directed as follows:

Read each criterion carefully and after you have read it ask yourself this question: "Does the in-service education program in

<sup>1</sup> C. A. Weber, "Basic Assumptions for Evaluation of Techniques for Educating Teachers in Service," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XVII (July, 1942), 19-27.

our school really measure up highly on the basis of this criterion?" If you can honestly and with reasonable certainty reply "Yes," place an X on the line provided. If you are in doubt, do not place an X on the line provided.

Fourteen criteria related to the encouragement of democratic co-operation of members of the teaching staff; eighteen, to the promotion of the mental and physical health of the teachers; thirty-two criteria were concerned with engendering use of intelligence in the solution of school problems; and six were related to the encouragement of creative work on the part of teachers.

The number of criteria checked in each division were summed, and these totals were divided by the possible total if each criterion had been checked by every teacher. This procedure gave the percentage of teachers in the two groups of schools who believed that their programs of in-service education measured up highly according to the criteria stated. The questions and the percentages of teachers answering "Yes" are shown below.

Does the program of in-service education in your school encourage democratic co-operation of members of the staff in the solution of problems? (Group A, 46.2 per cent. Group B, 15.0 per cent.)

Is the program of in-service education in your school conducive to mental and physical health of teachers? (Group A, 56.6 per cent. Group B, 30.0 per cent.)

Does the in-service education program in your school engender increased use of intelligence in solving problems rather than perpetuate practices based upon tradition and habit? (Group A, 62.7 per cent. Group B, 30.5 per cent.)

Does the in-service education program in your school engender creative expression and creative teaching? (Group A, 51.6 per cent. Group B, 21.6 per cent.)

The probability that the program for in-service education in Group A is

better than that in Group B, from the point of view of encouraging democratic co-operation, is 3.1 to 1. The program in Group A is better than that in Group B, from the point of view of promoting health of the teach-

TABLE 5  
RATIO OF PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS IN GROUP A TO PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS  
IN GROUP B WHO THINK THEIR RESPECTIVE PROGRAMS OF IN-SERVICE  
EDUCATION FULFIL CRITERIA OF EFFECTIVENESS\*

| Criterion   | Ratio | Criterion   | Ratio |
|---|-------|---|-------|
| Causes teachers to share in the planning of the work of the school.....   | 4.5:1 | Causes teachers to make careful study of recent research in education in the area of curriculum development.....  | 2.7:1 |
| Encourages pupils and parents to share with teachers the responsibility of evaluating progress and introducing changes in procedure....                     | 4.1:1 | Causes teachers to experiment with educational procedures and proposed changes.....                               | 2.7:1 |
| Promotes good will among teachers.....  | 4.1:1 | Results in uniting all the social agencies of the community.....  | 2.7:1 |
| Encourages teachers to make creative contributions to educational problems.....   | 3.8:1 | Results in participation by pupils and parents in active curriculum-planning.....                                 | 2.7:1 |
| Causes better understanding of school management and responsibility of teachers.....  | 3.6:1 | Causes teachers to have a dynamic social outlook.....   | 2.6:1 |
| Conduces to co-operative evaluation of the program of the school.....   | 3.5:1 | Encourages adequate sick leave of a cumulative nature.....  | 2.4:1 |
| Is effective in guaranteeing each member of the staff a part in the program of educational planning.....  | 3.5:1 | Focuses the attention of teachers on new theories of learning.....  | 2.4:1 |
| Is effective in releasing teachers from mechanized, routinized situations which are enemies of creative work.....   | 3.5:1 | Rewards teachers more for professional activity than for nonprofessional activity in the community.....           | 2.3:1 |
| Is effective in terms of teacher participation in the making of major decisions as to objectives, scope, and organization of the program of the school..... | 3.4:1 | Encourages teachers to study curriculum developments in other schools.....  | 2.3:1 |
| Causes teachers to be group conscious and to think of themselves as the agents of the group.....  | 3.4:1 | Encourages the administrator to conceive of his function as a co-worker and guide.....                            | 2.2:1 |
| Gives teachers an opportunity for the expression of deep-seated feelings and life-urges.....  | 3.3:1 | Encourages careful, systematic study of the child's home and community.....                                       | 2.2:1 |
| Releases teachers from inhibitive regulations.....  | 3.3:1 | Encourages inquiry into teacher difficulties.....   | 2.2:1 |
| Makes teacher growth a personal problem.....  | 3.2:1 | Meets the specific needs of teachers.....   | 2.1:1 |
| Causes teachers to study carefully the child's community.....   | 3.2:1 | Develops a sense of belonging on the part of teachers.....  | 2.1:1 |
| Develops group morale.....  | 3.1:1 | Is effective from the point of view of providing recreation for teachers.....                                     | 2.0:1 |
| Provides situations in which plans of action are discussed as possible ways of solving problems.....  | 3.0:1 | Causes teachers to be concerned with rethinking and reconstructing the educational program.....                   | 2.0:1 |
| Encourages teachers to evaluate experiments in education.....   | 2.8:1 | Causes teachers to be concerned with new developments and discoveries regarding child growth and development..... | 2.0:1 |
|   |       | Causes teachers to become familiar with educational research.....   | 2.0:1 |

\* Only items with ratios of 2.0:1 or more are included here.

ers, with a probability ratio of nearly 2 to 1. Likewise, it is twice as probable that intelligent methods of problem-solving are encouraged in Group A as in Group B, and it is twice as probable that the program in Group A is better than that in Group B with respect to encouraging creative work and thinking on the part of teachers.

Following the same procedure for each criterion singly, specific arguments in favor of the promise of those techniques used in the Group A schools over the techniques used in the Group B schools were calculated. No single criterion was given odds of less than 1.4 to 1 in favor of the techniques used in Group A, but only those arguments with a probability of 2 to 1 or more are included in Table 5.

#### CONCLUSIONS

1. The most promising techniques for educating teachers in service are those which give teachers a large part in the shaping of school policy; which give teachers a large part in planning and conducting faculty meetings; which encourage co-operative attacks on the problems facing the school; which provide for situations in which teachers, pupils, parents, and board members work together in attacking problems arising in the school.

2. The least promising techniques for educating teachers in service are those which may be classified as supervisory, inspectorial, authoritarian, and principal-dominated.

3. The success of programs of in-service education in secondary schools is largely a function of the degree of

democratic participation of all members of the school community, rather than of the size of the school, the years of service of teachers, the subjects taught by teachers, the extra-curriculum assignments of teachers, the fact that many teachers teach in their "home towns," or the amount of graduate study done by teachers.

#### IMPLICATIONS

1. In evaluating the worth of a high-school principal, the school authorities should seek affirmative answers to the following questions:

- a) Does he bring about co-ordinated, co-operative thinking and planning on the part of teachers?
- b) Does he substitute leadership for authority?
- c) When deliberations of the staff are ended, does he see to it that agreements reached by the staff are executed with effectiveness and understanding?
- d) Does he conceive of his task as that of co-ordinator of ideas and procedures initiated by the staff?

2. High-school principals should conceive of their function to be that of stimulating teachers to initiate inquiry, to devise plans of action, to evaluate procedures, and to participate actively in the determination of policies rather than that of providing the final authority which, directly or indirectly, forms and controls ideas, actions, evaluations, and policies. Practices which are characterized by the domination of the principal in matters of planning, conducting meetings, and making policies and by supervisory, inspectorial methods of

training teachers should be discarded rapidly.

3. Teachers should make every effort to participate in situations of group thinking, should take an active part in discussion, and should energetically contribute leadership. They should be concerned with the common problems of the school rather than with nothing but the limited problems of their own departments. Unless teachers are willing to assume the responsibilities incident to co-operative planning, outworn authoritarian procedures will continue to dominate the efforts of schools to promote teachers' growth in service. Teachers, when selected to serve on committees, should pursue their assignments with energy and seriousness of purpose. Staff members, in study groups, forums, panels, group interviews, and informal discussions, should make every effort to help the group in weighing data and making value judgments.

4. Teacher-educating institutions at the undergraduate and the graduate levels should give much greater attention to the problem of training teachers and principals how to plan co-operatively. Further, they should

carefully examine their own procedures for the purpose of eliminating those practices which put a premium on traditional and individualistic techniques of attacking educational problems. The workshop plan appears to have great promise in this respect.

5. Accrediting and certificating agencies should give serious consideration to the problem of devising ways and means of securing evidence of continued growth of teachers in service in terms of teacher participation in educational planning, teacher participation in co-operative programs of evaluation and experimentation, and teacher participation in co-operative efforts at curriculum development.

6. In every area, co-operative practices should be introduced to replace imposed procedures; learning by teachers through experience in educational planning should replace direction by principals and supervisors; active concern for, and study of, ends and values which make direct, vital appeal to teachers should be substituted for "training" techniques which are designed primarily to provide a smooth-running school rather than teacher growth.

## SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE EXTRA-CURRICULUM<sup>1</sup>

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THE impact of the war on the extra-curriculum program of the schools is evident in the professional literature of the past year. Of the forty-five references included in the list below, five are directly related to war activities and six more deal with the development of democratic attitudes and procedures. A second problem prominent in the literature on the extra-curriculum is that of legal and professional control over activities. Seven of the references cited are reports or discussions of various phases

of control. A third group of twelve references presents quantitative material. A fourth group was chosen as the best of the reports of outstanding or pioneer practices in individual schools. Finally, a few references presenting thoughtful discussions of critical problems and two bibliographies useful for special purposes are included.

296. "Activities of School Children Related to the War Effort," *Education for Victory*, I (April 15, 1942), 5-8.

A condensation of the reports of two subcommittees of the Divisional Committee on State and Local School Administration of the Wartime Commission. Lists many extra-curriculum and curricular activities.

297. ANDERSON, HAROLD A. "The High School Goes to War," *School Review*, L (November, 1942), 609-14.

The sections on extra-curriculum programs and on the Victory Corps contain information of special interest to sponsors of student activities.

298. ANDERSON, JOHN D. "Research in Extra-curricular Activities," *School Activities*, XIV (December, 1942), 125-27.

Briefly summarizes findings of research on the extra-curriculum as a phase of the public school program.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 576 (Bryan and Spaeth) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1942, number of the *School Review*; Items 118 (*Wartime Consumer Education*) and 136 (Woodring, Oakes, and Brown) in the February, 1943, number of the same journal, which contain, respectively, the following chapters of importance for this list: chap. iv, "Organizing the School for Victory on the Economic Home Front," and chap. x, "Clubs, Excursions, Hobbies"; Item 484 (*Inter-American Friendship through the Schools*) in the October, 1942, number of the *Elementary School Journal*; Item 474 (*Americans All*), in the same number of the *Elementary School Journal*, for a discussion by William Van Til of "Youth Hosteling," pp. 249-63; and Item 10 (Reavis and Judd) in the January, 1943, number of the same journal, for a valuable discussion in chap. vi of "Responsibilities for Extra-curriculum Activities."

299. BRAZELTON, CALANTHE M. "Tucson High School Goes to Town on the Junior Red Cross," *Clearing House*, XVII (November, 1942), 156-60.
- Describes the organization and the projects of an active Junior Red Cross group in a large city high school.
300. BRETNALL, R. J. "Welfare Workers," *Clearing House*, XVI (February, 1942), 329-31.
- Describes a comprehensive program of community service undertaken by one high school through curricular and extra-curriculum organizations. The program involved an interesting official relationship between the school and the municipal department of welfare.
301. BURCHFIELD, FRED B. "The Regulation of Activities in Ohio High Schools," *Ohio Schools*, XX (September, 1942), 296-97.
- Reports the principles and the procedures for regulating interschool activities used by the Ohio High School Principals' Association as part of the system of control established by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.
302. CAMPBELL, LAURENCE R. "Scholastic Journalism Is English at Its Best," *School Review*, L (December, 1942), 703-8.
- Stresses the values of classes in journalism and of student publications for achieving the basic aims of English instruction and suggests ways of capitalizing on these values more fully.
303. CARR, WILLIAM G. "Learning Citizenship through Student Activities," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXXI (February, 1942), 55-56.
- Cites examples, from previously published accounts, of commendable organizations of pupils.
304. CHAMBERS, M. M. "Tennessee Rules on the Sphere of the School Band," *Nation's Schools*, XXX (October, 1942), 27-28.
- Reviews the arguments used in a court decision which pronounced unconstitutional the Tennessee legislative statute whereby school bands were prevented from competing in certain ways with the American Federation of Musicians.
305. COMMITTEE ON FIELD SERVICES, THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO. *The School and the Community: Field Course and Survey, Greater Chicago Heights Area*. Chicago Heights, Illinois: Boards of Education, Districts 170 and 206, 1942. Pp. 46.
- Important information and findings, based on statistical data, with regard to extra-curriculum activities are included in the sections entitled "The Chicago Heights Community" and "Youth and Youth-serving Agencies."
306. CURTIS, JAMES E. "Supervision and Direction of Interschool Activities," *School Activities*, XIII (March, 1942), 251-53.
- Offers an illuminating illustration of the improvements which can be made in the practices of small athletic conferences as a result of co-operative consideration of problems.
307. DEBOLT, EDGAR C. "A Home Room Studies Itself," *School Review*, L (December, 1942), 709-14.
- Tells how fifty-two pupils of a ninth-grade home room collected facts about themselves in regard to participation in extra-curriculum activities, participation in organizations outside the school, work for pay, and scholastic achievement. Interesting relationships were discovered among these factors.
308. Democracy in Action: Descriptions and Recommendations Covering Student Participation in Michigan Secondary Schools. Bulletin No. 320. Lansing, Michigan: Eugene B. Elliott, Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1941. Pp. 38.

- A practical manual, dealing mainly with student government, prepared by the Michigan Committee on Student Participation.
309. ENLOW, CHESTER. "Extra-curriculum Activities in the County Secondary Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVI (May, 1942), 105-7.  
A brief report of the replies of more than three hundred county schools in Ohio to a questionnaire dealing with types of activities to be found in these schools and related administrative problems.
310. ESTVAN, FRANK J. "Democratic Processes in School Life," *Elementary School Journal*, XLIII (November, 1942), 143-50.  
A thoughtful discussion of broad aspects of democratic processes, including a section devoted specifically to teacher-pupil planning in extra-curriculum activities.
311. EVANS, J. R. "Leadership Course," *Clearing House*, XVI (April, 1942), 480-82.  
Stresses the importance of special training for pupil leaders and presents an outline of the leadership training course in use at Baker, Oregon.
312. "Extra-curricular Activities—Nazi versus American," *School Executive*, LXII (December, 1942), 30-31.  
Dramatically contrasts the underlying purposes of youth activities under democratic and fascist philosophies of life.
313. FERGUSON, K. R. "The Elementary School Newspaper in Oregon," *National-Elementary Principal*, XXII (December, 1942), 92-93.  
A brief but revealing discussion of the elementary-school newspaper, with special reference to a survey of school newspapers in Oregon.
314. FORD, ALOSIUS G. "An Analysis of Miscellaneous Literature on Extra-curricular Activities," *Abstracts of Studies in Education at Pennsylvania State College*, Part X (1942), pp. 15-16. Studies in Education, No. 24. State College, Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania State College, 1942.  
Compares data on theory and practice in the middle 1930's, as described in periodical literature on the extra-curriculum, with the findings of L. V. Koos in the middle 1920's.
315. GARLAND, PHILIP L. "The Extra-curriculum and the Teacher's Load," *Clearing House*, XVII (November, 1942), 145-48.  
Describes a factual approach to the problem of fair distribution of the extra-curriculum load.
316. *High School Commencement Activities*. Circular No. 3. Washington: Educational Research Service of the American Association of School Administrators and Research Division of the National Education Association, 1942. Pp. 26.  
Reports replies from 854 high schools to a questionnaire on types of program and on organization of graduation ceremonies. Emphasizes newer types of activities and includes thirteen tables with data classified according to size of graduating class.
317. *High School Victory Corps*. United States Office of Education, Victory Corps Series, Pamphlet No. 1, 1942. Pp. x+32.  
Describes the purposes, the organization, and the activities of the Victory Corps, including extra-curriculum as well as curricular activities.
318. HOLTORF, EVELYN E. "What Pupils Do after School," *Nation's Schools*, XXX (September, 1942), 14-17.  
Reports an investigation of the out-of-school leisure activities of Detroit school children. Implications for the school's extra-curriculum program are evident in this study.

319. HORN, GUNNAR, and THOMPSON, ELSA. "A Library for the Journalism Classroom," *School Activities*, XIV (November, 1942), 95-97.
- Lists and annotates thirty carefully selected references for high-school pupils who are interested in journalism.
320. JOSEPH, ALEXANDER. "Developing a Sourcebook of Extra-curricular Activities in Physical Science for Senior High Schools," *Science Education*, XXVI (February, 1942), 84-93.
- Lists several of the national and state associations of school science clubs, summarizes research and describes source books concerned with demonstrations and experiments for science clubs, and reports the research involved in the preparation of the author's source book of activities.
321. KEENE, CHARLES H. "Sports and Games in School Schedules," *Hygeia*, XX (July, 1942), 557-58.
- Criticizes certain aspects of athletic and nonathletic extra-curriculum activities as serious drains on health and energy.
322. KILZER, L. R. "Control of Allied Activities," *School Activities*, XIII (February, 1942), 211-12.
- Reports the action of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in establishing control over athletic and nonathletic school activities.
323. LETTS, GEORGE L. "Can the School Retain Them?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVI (May, 1942), 93-98.
- Describes various types of extra-curriculum activities used to provide for the individual differences of pupils in the York Community High School at Elmhurst, Illinois.
324. MCKOWN, HARRY C. "Housing and Equipping the Activities Program," *American School and University*, XIV, 265-67. New York: American School Publishing Corp., 1942.
- Proposes principles to be followed in planning and assigning space for extra-curriculum activities.
325. MEYER, FRANK. "Judging Student Government," *Clearing House*, XVI (April, 1942), 451-53.
- Lists twenty criteria by which democratic student government may be judged.
326. MONTGOMERY, KATHERINE W. "Principles and Procedures in the Conduct of 'Interscholastic' Athletics for Adolescent Girls," *Research Quarterly of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*, XIII (March, 1942), 60-67.
- Reports a research study to discover the principles and procedures of girls' competitive athletics which are approved by a majority of the national organizations sponsoring such contests.
327. NOEL, PAUL K. "This Yearbook Problem," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVI (May, 1942), 99-104.
- A thoughtful discussion of problems connected with the publication of the school annual—printing and engraving, photography, co-operative activity, and cost—as these problems were attacked at the Upper Darby High School of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
328. "The Public School Pays the Tax on Admissions," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVI (January, 1942), 77-90.
- Explains, in terms approved by the United States Deputy Commissioner of Internal Revenue, technicalities of the federal tax of 1941 on admissions.
329. RAGAN, IRMA. "Suggestions for a Photography Club," *School Activities*, XIV (October, 1942), 58-61.
- Outlines an interesting program of activities, extending throughout the school year, for elementary and advanced photography groups.

330. RAINES, VINCENT. "The Tuscaloosa High School Passes Half Century Mark," *Alabama School Journal*, LIX (April, 1942), 9-10, 22.  
Describes the organization and the program of an unusual commencement exercise in the high school at Tuscaloosa, Alabama.
331. REAVIS, WILLIAM C. "Training in Co-operation through Participation in Solving Secondary-School Problems," *School Review*, L (November, 1942), 629-35.  
A thoughtful discussion of sound principles of co-operation among administrators, teachers, and pupils in the solution of school problems, including problems pertaining to the extra-curriculum.
332. REEDER, C. W. "Academic Performance," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIII (April, 1942), 204-8.  
Compares the records of 105 varsity athletes in the College of Commerce of Ohio State University with the records of the entire student body, with respect to intelligence-test scores, scholarship records, and employment before and after participation in athletics.
333. SMITH, EARL C. "Financing Extracurricular Activities," *School Activities*, XIV (September, 1942), 15-16, 34.  
Urges that secondary schools use their extra-curriculum finance system as a means of educating pupils in good business procedures. Briefly reviews these procedures.
334. STONE, D. F. "Our Glider Club," *Clearing House*, XVII (November, 1942), 143-44.  
Describes a type of extra-curriculum activity which may develop rapidly after the war—a glider club organized by the secondary schools of Phoenix, Arizona.
335. STRANG, RUTH. "Guidance through Groups," *Review of Educational Research*, XII (February, 1942), 66-85.  
A review of important studies under seven topics, including extra-curriculum activities. Contains a bibliography.
336. TOOZE, RUSSELL. "Who Wins Interscholastic Debates?" *Nation's Schools*, XXX (September, 1942), 45.  
Challenges the right of interscholastic speech contests to a place among the school's activities and urges the development of a speech program designed to serve all pupils.
337. TUTTLE, EDITH M. "Student Government: Why Ours Worked," *Clearing House*, XVII (November, 1942), 135-38.  
Tells how a New York City high school began its student government in 1914. The author, one of the organizers of the program, states the principles which she believes fundamental to successful student governments.
338. WEBER, C. A. "Committee Activity in a Selected Group of Secondary Schools," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXV (October, 1942), 36-38, 43.  
Presents data on the activities of faculty committees, including committees on the extra-curriculum, in 247 selected secondary schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.
339. WELLING, RICHARD. *As the Twig Is Bent*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1942. Pp. xiv+296.  
Presents the life-story of a pioneer in the American movement for greater pupil participation in school government—the founder of the National Self Government Committee.
340. WELLING, RICHARD. "Self Government Urges Democracy in the Schools," *National Municipal Review*, XXX (October, 1941), 602-3.  
A brief account of the origin, the purposes, and the aims of the National Self Government Committee in its efforts to promote education for democratic citizenship in the schools.

## Educational Writings

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### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A TREATISE ON VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.—Three things have happened during the past ten years to focus sharply the attention of all thinking persons on the vocational problems of youth. The depression, the subsequent results of investigations of youth problems, and, more recently, the demands of business and industry for a greater supply of skilled labor have culminated in a vigorous interest in vocational education.

Even before the war brought on an acute shortage of trained workers, the results of published accounts of the problems facing youth indicated clearly that more emphasis would need to be given to the entire field of vocational education. The Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education on *Vocational Education*<sup>1</sup> is, therefore, a most timely and welcome contribution.

This publication is divided into six sections. The organization and scope of the material of the book can be observed, in part at least, from the titles of these sections: I. "Needs and Purposes of Vocational Education," II. "Current Problems," III. "Types of Vocational Education," IV. "Types of Programs and Agencies," V. "Vocational Programs in Different Educational Institutions," and VI. "Conclusions."

Section I serves as an introduction to the subject and is made up of one chapter, "Vocational Education and American Life." Section II considers current problems in the field, including, among other more usual

<sup>1</sup> *Vocational Education*. Forty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Distributed by the Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1943. Pp. xvi+494+vi. \$3.25 (cloth), \$2.50 (paper).

problems, the relation of vocational education to general education, work and the community, co-operation with governmental and nongovernmental agencies, and vocational education for national defense. Section III includes chapters on agricultural education and homemaking education, as well as those types more commonly thought of as "vocational education." The next section discusses, among other things, vocational education carried on through non-school governmental agencies, such as the Civil Aeronautics Administration, the Office of Indian Affairs, the National Youth Administration; vocational education in correctional institutions; and vocational education in private schools. The fifth section deals with vocational programs in high schools, junior colleges, liberal-arts colleges, vocational colleges, and universities. The final section summarizes the conclusions with a chapter headed "The Dynamics of Vocational Education."

The subject of vocational education is dealt with in this report from a broad frame of reference, and the important subject of the relation of vocational education to general education is clearly discussed. Nevertheless, several topics of great concern are not given major treatment. The evaluation of the relative emphasis given to the various aspects of the problem of vocational education is always, of course, predicated on one's personal prejudices; but there are two topics which, in the reviewer's opinion, might well have been given more prominent treatment in this yearbook.

The first of these is consideration of criteria for evaluating the results of vocational-education programs. It is evident that great

interest is now being shown in the need for vocational education and in the programs by which such education is carried on. How effective, however, are these programs? Where could time and money be saved without reducing the efficiency of the product of these courses? How well do persons with specialized training adjust to vocational changes? Specifically, just what vocational training is necessary? These and other questions suggest the need for criteria for evaluating programs of vocational education. The fact that jobs are obtained or even that employers are pleased should not, of itself, satisfy the educators dealing with vocational-training programs. Leaders in this aspect of education may well be proud of their accomplishments thus far, but the progress of the movement will diminish unless critical self-evaluation is made.

The second area which, according to the reviewer's ideas, should have been given more emphasis is the difference between vocational education and the industrial-arts courses which serve as part of general education. Handwork was originally introduced into schools for its general educational values; the vocational motif, in most cases, came along later. In recent years vocational education has stolen the show. Nevertheless, there is still a very significant place for industrial arts in the program of general education. Were it not for the fact that shopwork is a sort of common denominator for both vocational education and industrial arts, there would be less confusion concerning their wholly different objectives. Because these two are confused, the difference should have received greater attention in a publication such as the present yearbook in order that clearness of thinking with regard to both vocational education and industrial arts might have been furthered.

As has been indicated, the material presented in the yearbook is comprehensive. To obtain the full benefits of the book, one should read it in its entirety. The volume was prepared primarily for use by persons who

desire a general account of the present status of vocational education. It was prepared by specialists for generalists. It offers a type of overview and orients the reader to the broad field of specialized vocational education. For these reasons its discourse is, in the main, descriptive rather than analytic. General discussions of the problems, although such appear, seem subordinate to descriptions of practices. Upon reading the book, one feels acquainted in a genuine fashion with the activities going on, in schools, in the community, in business, and in industry, which have to do with preparing people for work. The report is an account of present-day happenings and current situations. It is alive because it deals with real things, and it is timely. For every suspicion or adverse criticism which is hurled at vocational education because it has expanded too rapidly and has extended too far into the traditional school curriculum, there are many questions of why it is not going faster and farther.

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A COMPREHENSIVE TREATMENT OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL.—Since publication in 1916 of Aubrey A. Douglass' comprehensive treatment of the junior high school, some fifteen similar books have been published. Nearly every year from 1919 to 1930 saw the appearance of one or two of these books. Since 1930, however, only one major discussion has been produced, and some might challenge the assertion that it was a comprehensive treatment.

This background suggests that any new venture into the junior high school field should do two related things. First, a new publication added to an already long list of books on the subject ought to contribute new material or a new viewpoint. Second, it should capitalize on developments of theory and practice that have occurred during the last half of the junior high school's history, since most of the books now available belong

with an earlier stage of the institution's growth.

It is with these thoughts in mind that the reviewer takes up a book<sup>1</sup> "written as a text for prospective teachers in teacher-training institutions and for in-service teachers and administrators who are concerned with improving junior high school education" (p. viii).

The book opens with a chapter reviewing the historical background of the junior high school and describing its present status. Following this introduction, the authors have divided their discussion into four major parts. The first part describes the physical, mental, and social characteristics of junior high school pupils. The second part deals with various aspects of guidance and provision for individual differences. The last two parts, which are longer than the first two, treat the program of studies and administration.

The section on the program of studies follows a pattern somewhat different from that used in earlier books. The six chapters included deal with such matters as teacher planning, the library, audio-visual aids, appraising and reporting pupil progress, and extra-class activities. Likewise, the section on administration includes chapters on democratizing administration, public relations, and "Looking into the Future," along with such customary topics as school staff, scheduling, and school plant.

The book as a whole meets very well the requirements of a volume presented at this stage of the history of the junior high school. The authors have used the foundation laid down by previous writers and have gone on, in every part of the book, to take advantage of recent developments in theory and in practice. At least nine-tenths of the hundreds of references cited are the product of the past

<sup>1</sup> Maurice M. Smith, L. L. Standley, and Cecil L. Hughes, *Junior High School Education: Its Principles and Procedures*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1942. Pp. xiv+470. \$3.50.

decade. Effective use has been made of the abundance of new materials on growth and development, on guidance, and on such aspects of administration as public relations and democracy in administration. Whether or not the most significant implications of the material have been isolated in every instance may be open to question, but certainly the emphasis is on the newer developments. The result is a textbook which should prove extremely useful in bringing experienced teachers up to date, as well as in presenting the latest word to students beginning work in the junior high school field.

If the book has a fault, it is that the effort to cover a great deal of ground has resulted in some blurring of the clarity and emphasis. This comprehensiveness may be desirable, since a textbook is supposed to survey an entire field and can rely, to a large extent, on its references to point to more detailed analysis. Such a procedure is, no doubt, particularly acceptable when there is already an extensive literature in previous textbooks. Nevertheless, the two-page presentation of such a significant development as the core curriculum seems altogether inadequate, as does the discussion of the problems out of which the core curriculum has grown. Similarly, it is disappointing to find so little consideration of the issue regarding the proper length of the junior high school. For example, it would have been helpful to have a careful analysis of the arguments revolving around the four-year junior high school. Perhaps such general topics as the organization for curriculum revision or the school plant might have been omitted in favor of topics that are more nearly the special concern of the junior high school.

It would be unfair to express these criticisms without stressing again the obvious merits of the book. The volume is comprehensive, it surveys and summarizes the literature now available, it stresses recent developments, and it looks to the future. These positive qualities should commend it to a wide audience.

DAN H. COOPER

**INTRODUCTION TO BUSINESS EDUCATION.**

—The objectives of vocational education at the high-school level may be expressed in various terms, according to the interests of the pupils who are enrolled in these courses. For some pupils the vocational courses are intended to provide training that will enable them to secure employment at the earliest possible time. In other cases these courses help the pupil to qualify for admission to special schools which provide advanced training in the same field. On the other hand, many pupils in the high schools find it advantageous to try several vocational courses in order to test their interests and abilities in various occupational fields. It is also generally recognized that much of the content of vocational courses is of value for the general education which high schools are expected to provide for all pupils. The courses which prepare for the business occupations serve all these purposes, and in most high schools the business department enrolls a relatively large proportion of the student body.

The textbooks required for different courses in the business department are, naturally, organized in accordance with the major objectives of the courses. Typically a great many courses in business education are provided to meet the needs and the interests of high-school pupils, especially in the cities where large high schools prevail. It is desirable, therefore, to provide an introductory course through which pupils may become acquainted with the requirements of different kinds of business service and may master the fundamentals of business procedures which are important in everyday life. A textbook for such a course<sup>1</sup> has recently been published.

The twenty-five chapters of the book are intended to explain the place of business in organized society as well as to develop skills in business activities. Informative accounts

of the procedures involved in office practice, communication, salesmanship, purchasing, insurance, banking, etc., are supplemented by practice exercises on the simpler problems of business in these areas. The book is richly illustrated by the reproduction of forms commonly used in business transactions, many of which are shown in their distinctive colors. Familiar examples of business activities in the school and in the home are introduced in the earlier chapters, and later chapters deal with the more intricate problems of organized business enterprises. Frequent exercises are provided to increase the pupil's skill in arithmetic, handwriting, and spelling. The last chapter is devoted entirely to business computation. The various reference works useful in business activities are listed and described. Technical words and phrases are so introduced that a useful business vocabulary may be gradually developed. The values of business etiquette, of desirable personal traits, and of habits of thrift are given special emphasis.

The organization of the book is in keeping with the expressed desire of the authors to provide an introductory textbook in the field of business education. While the style of writing and the content of most of the chapters are suitable for ninth-grade pupils, some of the subjects treated and many of the problems seem to be better suited to the needs and interests of pupils in the upper grades in the high school. The practical nature of the illustrations and problems makes the publication a valuable handbook for high-school graduates in the early years of business employment.

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**PROBLEMS INVOLVED IN THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH.**—In 1939 the president of Harvard University appointed a committee representing the faculties of Harvard College and of the Graduate School of Education to investigate the training of sec-

<sup>1</sup> Charles W. Hamilton, J. Francis Gallagher, and Charles Fancher, *Preparing for Business*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1942. Pp. xii+494. \$1.60.

ondary-school teachers, especially with reference to English. The committee's report<sup>1</sup> therefore represents the concerted efforts of two educational agencies which are concerned with the training of teachers and which, in the words of the committee, "are but imperfectly co-ordinated" (p. 40) and commonly evidence their disharmony in a deplorable "war of words."

Chapter i contains a penetrating analysis of the social setting of secondary education and of the way in which existing conditions affect, and are reflected in, the curriculum, the teachers, and the pupils. Naturally, however, the point of view from which all problems are examined and to which all implications and conclusions apply is that of teacher training. Especially significant is the committee's conclusion that the profession of teaching "is not attracting sufficiently able persons" (p. 12).

In view of the confused conditions in the high school today, the committee poses the question: What kind of secondary education is possible and what kind is desirable? In answer, it dissects and dismisses the vague platitudes in which commonly accepted "objectives of education" are embraced and deplores attempts to center the curriculum of the school in the "personality" of the child, without due consideration both of the evanescent nature of that conception and of the individual's responsibility to society. It concludes that a school program made up of subject matter is both possible and necessary and that English, as a part of this subject matter, contributes conspicuously to a desirable end of education. But the concept of "English" is as confused and as full of conflicting elements as is the current picture of secondary education.

In chapter ii, the committee discusses the

<sup>1</sup> *The Training of Secondary School Teachers: Especially with Reference to English.* Report of a Joint Committee of the Faculty of Harvard College and of the Graduate School of Education. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1942. Pp. xii+174.

"Confusion of Aims in High School English" under nine categories, returning in each case to the fundamental consideration that, until secondary-school authorities make up their minds about what they want, existing dilemmas in the training of teachers cannot be resolved. The discussion of conflicting aims is terminated with a consideration of "reading" as an intellectual process versus "reading" as a worthy leisure-time activity, and from this point the committee proceeds to a clear statement of a tenable position:

If "reading" connotes intellectual growth, if the presumed aim of "reading" is to bring young Americans into living contact with a vast cultural heritage, then the task of the English teacher is both unique and important: unique in that no other teacher on the staff can do his work; important in that the contribution of the English class to high school education is a major contribution to the continuing life-stream of a cultural tradition [p. 39].

Teachers who are charged with this unique and important task in the secondary schools must be trained in higher institutions. However, misunderstandings and antipathies between the department of English and the department of education in these institutions confuse the issues in teacher training and render desirable training impossible and the present training unattractive to superior students.

The third chapter, therefore, is devoted to a searching analysis of "Existing Dilemmas in the Training of Teachers." The philosophy and the basic aims of the department of English are first examined. Then, by means of historical summary, the committee traces the evolution of the department of education and indicates that this department shares neither the traditions nor the aims of the other. Quite evident, in the opinion of the committee, is the fact that, if the department of English needs to concern itself more seriously with actual conditions in secondary schools, the department of education needs as badly to define its philosophical bases before the two can work together pro-

ductively in the training of teachers. However, it is important to note that the committee neither begins nor ends this chapter with the aim of making invidious comparison or of exalting theoretical over applied knowledge. The belief is expressed that both departments have significant contributions to make and that they can unite their efforts to common aims.

Consequently more than a fourth of the report is devoted to an admirably reasoned statement of "Possible Aims of Teaching English in the Secondary Schools." It is the committee's hope that these goals are "set forth so simply and directly as to command the adherence of all parties to the controversy—the collegiate department of English, the school of education, the secondary schools, and the public at large" (p. 61).

Chapter v considers "Basic Needs and Courses in Education," and chapter vi presents "Conclusions and Recommendations." The former summarizes requirements for certification and includes a statement of the possible value of specific courses in education. The latter outlines a comprehensive plan, based on all the general considerations of the report, for improvement of the teacher-training program at Harvard University.

Two appendixes present (1) a statement of conclusions in regard to the place of motion pictures in English instruction and (2) testimonies of experienced teachers of English.

Interest in this report is sure to be as wide as is interest in public education. The work is novel only insofar as the controversial questions with which it deals are not left in a confused condition. Although creation of "vague good will" was not the purpose of the committee, unusually straight thinking on fundamental issues has been so admirably combined with judicious phrasing that its conclusions must command universal respect, if not universal adherence.

VIRGINIA SUE READING

A SURVEY OF THE PHYSICAL SCIENCES FROM THE PHYSICIST'S VIEWPOINT.—Gray's textbook on *Man and His Physical World*<sup>1</sup> is designed for students whose only formal contact with the fields of astronomy, chemistry, geology, and physics will be a science-survey course. This task is almost overwhelming for any author, for each of these four branches of the physical sciences is a field of specialization in itself. To choose from the wealth of materials available is difficult, and to choose so that all four are presented in a balanced and co-ordinated manner is next to impossible.

The content and the arrangement of the material in Gray's volume suggest that the author was more concerned with the areas approaching physics than with the other three. Little space is occupied with geology, although the material given in geology is clearly and concisely presented. Only three chapters out of thirty-three deal primarily with geology. It would seem, then, that this subject is not clearly in focus with the other physical sciences.

The field of chemistry is likewise somewhat slighted. Not enough of the basic concepts are considered to supply the student with a balanced view of chemistry against the background of the other physical sciences. There is little or no discussion concerning families of elements, ionic equilibria, or the chemistry of life. The author does present a fine, modern picture of fuels and combustion, metals and alloys, and colloids and rubber, as well as an elementary discussion of plastics.

The fields of astronomy and physics are given a larger proportion of the discussion than are chemistry and geology. The material is amply illustrated with modern, well-chosen pictures and drawings. In the area of physics, however, several weaknesses occur. Perhaps the most outstanding is the use of the English system of units to the practical

<sup>1</sup> Dwight E. Gray, *Man and His Physical World*. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1942. Pp. xii+666. \$3.75.

exclusion of the metric system. To the physical scientist this choice is heresy. The metric system has been recognized as being the most efficient, the most useful, and the easiest to understand of the various methods for describing physical phenomena. It is true that most students will go on using the English system in everyday life, but in any science-survey course the metric system should be encouraged and fostered by all means possible.

The discussions of heat and force leave much to be desired. The presentation uses the plan of beginning with the gravitational formula instead of the more simple method of beginning with speed, distance, velocity, and then force. In dealing with heat, the author pays little attention to such things as specific heat, heat of fusion, and transfer of heat energy, but he gives a fine discussion of heat engines.

Mechanically the volume is attractive. It has a strong binding with an "eye-appealing" finish. The type is large enough so that

continued reading does not tire the eyes. A useful series of questions follows each chapter. A reading list of the more recent volumes in the physical sciences appears at the end of the book. The books are listed alphabetically without regard to the field or to the chapters to which they refer. References to specific chapters are listed for each volume given. This system is not so well liked by the average student as is the system which lists the reading references at the end of each chapter.

In spite of the numerous criticisms listed above, this publication is one of the more interesting textbooks for a general-survey course. The material is well written and well illustrated. The facts given are authentic and honestly portrayed. Supplemented with a few other special textbooks, it is fine for use in an elementary science-survey course at the college Freshman level.

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## CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

### METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

*Current Viewpoints in Education: A Series of Articles by Members of the Faculty.* Compiled by Claude Eggertsen and Warren R. Good. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Bureau of Educational Reference and Research, University of Michigan, 1942. Pp. vi+202.

GREENE, HARRY A., JORGENSEN, ALBERT N., and GERBERICH, J. RAYMOND. *Measurement and Evaluation in the Secondary School.* New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1943. Pp. xxvi+670. \$3.75.

HOLY, T. C., and DOTY, CORNELIA, with the assistance of the SURVEY STAFF and CO-OPERATING COMMITTEES. *Survey of the Girls' Industrial School, Delaware, Ohio: Made for the State of Ohio Department of Public Welfare.* Bureau of Educational

Research Monographs, No. 27. Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, 1942. Pp. xiv+288. \$1.50 (paper), \$2.00 (cloth).

HUTCHINS, ROBERT MAYNARD. *Education for Freedom.* Edward Douglass White Lectures on Citizenship, Louisiana State University, 1941. Baton Rouge, Louisiana: Louisiana State University Press, 1943. Pp. x+108. \$1.50.

*The Library in General Education.* Forty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago: Distributed by the Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1943. Pp. xiv+384+xlvi. \$3.00 (cloth), \$2.25 (paper).

*Schools and Manpower—Today and Tomorrow.* Twenty-first Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington: American Association of

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BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS  
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BABBITT, ARTHUR B., and SWARTZ, DAVID J. *Mechanical Drawing, Including Blueprint Reading*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1942. Pp. iv+218. \$1.20.

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CLARK, JOHN A., GORTON, FREDERICK RUSSEL, and SEARS, FRANCIS W., with the editorial assistance of MAJOR FRANCIS C. CROTTY. *Fundamentals of Machines*. Prepared at the request of the War Department and the U.S. Office of Education in conformance with official pre-induction training course outline PIT No. 102. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1943. Pp. xii+300. \$1.24.

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The Good Neighbor Series: *The Central Five: Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Costa Rica* by Sydney Greenbie. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson & Co., 1943. Pp. 84. \$0.56.

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HERZBERG, MAX J., PAINE, MERRILL P., and WORKS, AUSTIN M. *Happy Landings*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1942 and 1943. Pp. xxii+398. \$1.48.

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- SARETT, LEW; FOSTER, WILLIAM TRUFANT; and McBURNEY, JAMES H. *Speech: A High School Course*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1943. Pp. iv+490. \$1.84.
- SPITZ, ARMAND N., with the co-operation of MRS. HARRY THOMAS JORDAN. *A Start in Meteorology: An Introduction to the Science of the Weather*. New York: Norman W. Henley Publishing Co., 1942. Pp. 96. \$1.50.
- Training for Victory: *Automotive Mechanics-I*, Written To Conform to the Preinduction Training Course in Fundamentals of Automotive Mechanics as Prepared by the War Department, by Clarence G. Barger, pp. viii+166, \$1.12; *Fundamentals of Electricity*, Based on Material Developed for the Teaching of Learners and Apprentices of the Carnegie-Illinois Steel Corporation, Rewritten To Conform to the Preinduction Training Course in Fundamentals of Electricity as Prepared by the War Department, pp. viii+194, \$1.16; *Shopwork*, Written To Conform to the Preinduction Training Course in Fundamentals of Shopwork as Prepared by the War Department, by Edward C. Wicks, John Poliacik, Jr., and John Ellberg, pp. viii+160, \$1.12; *Radio-I*, Written To Conform to the Preinduction Training Course in Fundamentals of Radio as Prepared by the War Department, by R. E. Williams and Charles A. Scarrott, pp. viii+132, \$1.04. New York: American Book Co., 1943.
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